



COLERIDGE'S ANCIENT MARINER

AND SELECT ODES.

NOTES BY J. W. CONNOR, B. A.

MACAULAY'S ESSAY

ON

WARREN HASTINGS.

NOTES BY G. MERRER ADAM.



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RIME OF THE ANCIENT MARINER

AND

SELECT ODES,

BY

SAMUEL TAYLOR COLERIDGE:

EDITED, WITH NOTES, BY

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Head Master, High School, Berlin.

WARREN HASTINGS:

AN ESSAY BY

LORD MACAULAY,

EDITED WITH NOTES, INTRODUCTIONS, AND THEMES
FOR COMPOSITION,

BY

G. MERCER ADAM,

Late Editor of "The Canadian Monthly," &c.

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ADVERTISEMENT.

THE object of the Notes accompanying the present selection from Coleridge's poems—a selection that unhappily excludes his finest and most characteristic work—is simply to explain and illustrate the text, and to aid the teacher in his efforts to awaken admiration for the poet's genius and to foster a love for English Literature. It is assumed that, in spite of the misdirected efforts of certain departmental examiners, the teachers of this Province know a more excellent way of spending the "Literature-hour" than tormenting their pupils with analysis and parsing, and cramming them with derivations that throw no light upon the author's meaning. The biographical sketch, being intended for the pupil's use, does not go into discussions of the impropriety of the term, "The Lake School," or of the influence of Coleridge and Wordsworth on the literature of the present century; these the teacher will find in hand-books and in such works as Mr. Traill's able *Life of Coleridge*. It is to be hoped, however, that no one will adopt that author's one-sided view of Coleridge's philosophy without reading Principal Shairp's essay on Coleridge, in "Studies in Poetry and Philosophy," and Principal Tulloch's article in the *Fortnightly* for January, 1885.

BERLIN, 21st May, 1885.

LIFE OF COLERIDGE.

Early Years.

SAMUEL TAYLOR COLERIDGE was born at Ottery St. Mary, Devonshire, in 1772. Coleridge, Scott, Wordsworth, and Southey were all nearly of the same age. In his ninth year the former lost his father, the Rev. John Coleridge, from whom, rather than from his practical but uncultivated mother, he inherited his great intellectual powers. Soon after, the orphan boy, already a poet, was sent to Christ's Hospital, the "Blue-coat School," then under the management of the Rev. James Bowyer, a cruel, but Coleridge says, a very able teacher. The dreary life he led there may have strengthened his tendency to day-dreaming,* which, he tells us, was his only play. Imprudence in allowing his wet clothes to dry on him made a great part of his life a "long disease," which in time enfeebled his power of will and destroyed his poetic faculty. Meanwhile he made great progress in study, translating the hymns of Synesius into English verse before his fifteenth year. A passion for metaphysical speculation absorbed his whole mind for a time. His life-long friend, Charles Lamb, himself a "Blue-coat" boy, gives us this interesting description of the young poet:—

"How have I seen the casual passer through the cloisters stand still, entranced with admiration (while he weighed the disproportion between the speech and the garb of the young *Mirandula*), to hear thee unfold, in thy deep and sweet intonations, the mysteries of Iamblichus or Plotinus (for even in those years thou waxedst not pale at such philosophic draughts), or reciting Homer in the Greek, or Pindar, while the walls of the old Grey Friars re-echoed with the accents of the *inspired charity boy*."

From this absorption in metaphysics he was recalled to poetry by the perusal of Bowles's sonnets; and he himself tells us:—"There was a long and blessed interval, during which my natural faculties were allowed to expand, and my original tendencies to develop themselves—my fancy, and the love of nature, and the sense of beauty in forms and sounds."

Coleridge's university career opened brilliantly with his winning a gold medal for a Greek poem on the Slave Trade.

* Who has not heard how the orphan boy alone in the sea of humanity that surged in the streets of London accidentally touched the pocket of a gentleman, and to his exclamation, "What! so young and so depraved?" replied that he had fancied he was Leander swimming the Hellespont?

but was soon darkened by debt unwittingly incurred, and discouragement as to his future, the Unitarian notions which he had imbibed being a barrier to his entering the Church, and his dislike for mathematics obstructing his advancement in the University. Accordingly, in a fit of dejection he left Cambridge and enlisted in a cavalry regiment, in which he never rose above the awkward squad, "Trooper Cumberbatch" being the laughing-stock of his comrades for his clumsiness, though endeared to them by his kindly disposition. Discharged after a few months, he returned to Cambridge; but having met the poet Southey, then nick-named "Citizen Southey," he joined in his plan for founding a "Pantisocracy," or all-equal government, on the banks of the Susquehanna. While waiting at Bristol for the funds required to "freight a ship with implements of husbandry," Coleridge delivered a course of eloquent lectures on the French Revolution, afterwards published as the *Conciones ad Populum*. In 1795 the emigration scheme was given up, Coleridge marrying Sara Fricker, sister-in-law of his fellow-Pantisocrat Robert Lovell, and Southey her sister Edith. In 1796 Coleridge set on foot a liberal periodical, the *Watchman*, in order "that all might know the truth, and that the truth might make us free," and undertook a tour to obtain subscribers, preaching in the Unitarian chapels of the great towns in the North. This tour, charmingly described in pp. 81-84 of the *Biographia Literaria*, resulted in a list of some thousand subscribers, who had nearly all dropped off before the ninth and last number appeared, the poet's want of tact and business capacity having neutralized the brilliancy of his writing. He afterwards renounced Unitarianism, and, like Wordsworth and Southey, became a staunch upholder of the established order in Church and State. His Toryism, however, was modified by his early Liberalism, and his defence of religion seemed revolutionary to many good men of his time.

Coleridge as a Poet.

In 1797 his friend Cottle,* a Bristol bookseller, published a volume of Coleridge's poems, which included his "Effusions," or sonnets on Burke and other distinguished men, the *Lines on an Eolian Harp*, which reflected the domestic happiness of his early married life, and the *Religious Musings*, written on Christmas Eve, 1794, denouncing the French war, and containing some fine and some rather tedious passages.

To this part of his life—i.e., 1794-1802—belong all Coleridge's best poems; and those contained in this volume mark three distinct phases of his poetical career, viz. :—

1. His revolutionary period—the *Odes to the Departing Year* and *to France*.

* Cottle gives in his *Recollections* a long list of books which Coleridge then intended to write, and which he never even set about.

2. The culmination of his genius in the *Ancient Mariner*, and, we should add, in *Christabel*. Akin, though inferior, to these are *Kubla Khan* and the *Dark Lady*.

3. The decline of his genius, marked by the beautiful *Ode to Dejection* (1802), and the somewhat inferior *Lines to William Wordsworth* (1806).

Here it may be needful to refer to the often-remarked connection between great political movements and the development of poetic genius. The influence of the French Revolution on the literature of our century is not less remarkable than that of the stirring times of Elizabeth on Shakspeare and his contemporaries, and of the Civil War on Milton. It affected not only the subjects of poetry, but also its style, and Coleridge and Wordsworth showed the superiority of a natural mode of expression over the stilted and artificial diction of Pope and his school. Coleridge's finer taste and his sense of humour preserved him from the extremes into which Wordsworth is betrayed, and his thoughts are never debased by meanness of language.

The *Ode to the Departing Year*, written in the last week of 1796, is certainly superior, both in thought and in diction, to any ode that had appeared since Milton's *Ode on the Nativity*, not even *The Progress of Poetry* and *The Bard* excepted. But the events of 1797 showed that the cause of France was by no means that of liberty, and the poet's disappointment and sorrow found expression in the *Ode to France*.

But 1797 brought its compensation. In that year, Coleridge, then residing at Nether Stowey, met at Racedown the poet Wordsworth, whose "Descriptive Sketches" he had admired while at Cambridge. The two poets were charmed with each other, and their association did much to mature the genius of both. From their conversations on poetry originated the *Lyrical Ballads*, which were intended to illustrate "the two cardinal points of poetry; the power of exciting the sympathy of the reader by a faithful adherence to the truth of nature, and the power of giving the interest of novelty by the modifying colours of the imagination." It was agreed that Wordsworth was to contribute poems on subjects chosen from every-day life, while in Coleridge's part, "the incidents and agents were to be, in part at least, supernatural, and the interest aimed at was to consist in the interesting of the affections by the dramatic truth of such emotions as would naturally accompany such situations, supposing them real." He was "to transfer from our inward nature a human interest and a semblance of truth sufficient to procure for these shadows of the imagination that willing suspension of disbelief which constitutes poetic faith." Coleridge's part of the joint volume, which appeared in 1798, virtually consisted of the *Ancient Mariner* alone. It was projected, as

Wordsworth tells us, in 1797, in order to defray the expense of a short tour, and begun as the two poets and Miss Wordsworth walked along the Quantock Hills. "Much the greatest part of the story was Mr. Coleridge's invention, but certain parts I suggested; for example, some crime was to be committed which should bring upon the old navigator the spectral persecution."

Wordsworth goes on to tell that having lately been reading in Shelvocke's *Voyages* about albatrosses, he suggested the killing of the bird, and furnished a few lines, but that his style proved so widely different from Coleridge's that he left the matter to him, and that when the *Mariner* outgrew the original limits, the poets thought of a volume, the "Lyrical Ballads," whose publication marks an era in English literature. *Christabel* and the *Dark Ladie*, in which the poet says "I should have more nearly realized my ideal," were begun in 1798, but never finished—the fate also of the *Three Graves*, which might have proved the best of Coleridge's narrative poems.

Christabel, unrivalled for its weird interest and its perfect melody, inspired Scott in writing his *Lay of the Last Minstrel*. This perfection of melody also distinguishes *Kubla Khan*, written in 1797, from the recollection of a dream, and indeed, in some measure, whatever Coleridge wrote.

In 1798 Coleridge, by the wise generosity of the sons of Wedgwood, the eminent potter, in settling an annuity of £150 upon him, was enabled to spend nearly a year in Germany, chiefly in Gottingen, where he gained an insight into German philosophy and theology, especially the systems of Schelling and of Kant.

Coleridge as a Journalist and Critic.

On his return, Coleridge entered in earnest upon journalism by "undertaking the literary and political department of the *Morning Post*, on condition that the paper should thenceforward be conducted on certain fixed and announced principles." This undertaking not only proved advantageous to the *Post*, but added dignity to British journalism. But here Coleridge's poetical career abruptly ends, his translation of Schiller's *Wallenstein* and the second part of *Christabel* being his last extensive works. In 1800 he removed to the Lake country, settling at Keswick. Beautiful as is the situation, the climate quickened the seeds of disease long since sown by his youthful carelessness, so that his health was completely broken down.

The *Ode to Dejection* (1802) shows us what ravages disease had made on his spirits and strength, and also what brought his poetic activity to an end just when his genius seemed about to attain its full power. He tells us that "each visitation" of disease suspended his "shaping spirit of imagination,"

and his only plan was "not to think of what I needs must feel"—and to employ his mind in abstruse research. Worst of all, pain drove him to seek relief in opium, taken at first in the "Kendal Black Drop" as a remedy for "a rheumatic affection, with swellings at the knees and pains all over me." Too late, Coleridge found himself bound by a chain which his enfeebled will could not shake off. In hope that change of air might benefit him, he visited his friend, Sir John Stoddart, then judge in Malta, where the Governor, Sir Alexander Ball, induced him to act as his secretary for some months. The climate, however, did him no good; he became troubled with a difficulty in breathing, and, no doubt, the solitary life he led confirmed the habit of taking opium. In September, 1805, he continued his tour, spending some time in Naples and in Rome, where he met Tieck, the German poet, and Alston, the American painter. He returned to England in the sad state pictured in his *Lines to William Wordsworth*, written after hearing the recitation of the *Prelude*. The *Prelude* was inscribed to Coleridge, and the generous eulogy of his character and genius which it contains aroused the sad feelings expressed in the lines beginning,

"Ah! as I listened with a heart forlorn."

The history of the next ten years is most painful. "Worse than homeless" through having alienated his wife by the shiftlessness, irresolution, and neglect of duty caused by his evil habit, broken in health, with impaired powers, forming many schemes, but persevering in none, Coleridge led an unsettled life, while his family took up their abode with Southey. We should, however, do Coleridge the justice to remember that he settled his annuity upon them. In 1809-10 he lived with Wordsworth at Grasmere, and published the *Friend*, a periodical intended to diffuse sound moral and political principles. In spite of the fine passages it contains, the *Friend* was too deep for the public, and reached only its twenty-eighth number. He delivered two courses of lectures, in 1808 and 1811, the latter being his famous lectures on Shakspeare and Milton, which, in the opinion of good judges, are by far the best exposition of Shakspeare's art. These lectures, together with his criticism on Wordsworth, in the *Biographia Literaria*, place him in the front rank of literary critics.

About this time he wrote for the *Courier*, but his articles are inferior to those he had written for the *Morning Post*. His tragedy of *Remorse*, acted in 1813 through Byron's influence, was received with great favor.

In 1816 the sad spectacle of the degradation of so mighty a genius came to an end. Seeing at last that his will was too weak to overcome his evil habit, Coleridge placed himself under the care of a surgeon, Mr. Gillman, of Highgate, whom he authorized to use coercion if needed. In time the efforts of Mr. Gillman, in whose house Coleridge lodged for the rest

of his life, were successful, and the remaining eighteen years of the poet's life were tranquil and useful.

Coleridge as a Philosopher.

Shortly after this happy change in his life Coleridge published his *Statesman's Manual, or the Bible the Best Guide to Political Skill and Foresight*, his two *Lay Sermons to the Higher Classes*, the *Biographia Literaria*, or *Biographical Sketches of my Literary Life and Opinions*. He also re-issued *The Friend* in a form which made it almost a new work. In 1825 appeared the *Aids to Reflection*, of which Principal Tulloch says :—

“In his *Aids to Reflection* Coleridge may be said to have transformed and renewed the current ideas of the time about religion. * * * Coleridge's most distinctive work was to restore the broken harmony between reason and religion by showing how man is essentially a religious being.”

In his later years he was engaged, with the help of Joseph Henry Green, in preparing for publication his “Magnum Opus,” his *Christian Philosophy*, which he did not live to produce. Mr. Green, however, to a certain extent succeeded in setting forth Coleridge's doctrines in his posthumous work, *Spiritual Philosophy, founded on the teachings of the late Samuel Taylor Coleridge*. But it was not only by his writings that Coleridge influenced English thought. To Mr. Gillman's house flocked for years many of the most promising young men of the time, to whom Coleridge became almost an oracle. Carlyle's disparaging account of his conversation has had more weight than it probably will have hereafter, now that it is seen how much Carlyle indulged in detraction. A better, but confessedly an inadequate idea may be gained from the *Table Talk*, published by his nephew, Henry Nelson Coleridge, the husband of the poet's gifted daughter Sara. We may quote the statement of a more impartial hearer, Dr. Dibdin, that “the auditors seemed to be rapt in wonder and delight, as one conversation, more profound or clothed in more forcible language than another, fell from his tongue. As I returned homeward, I thought a second Johnson had visited the earth to make wise the sons of men.”

In Mr. Gillman's peaceful home the poet ended his days, leaving us a precious heritage in criticism and philosophy, and above all in poetry, and a salutary warning, in the miseries of the middle years of his life, how little avail splendid powers, sound principles, and even religious aspirations, without firm resolution and constant watchfulness.

The date of Coleridge's death is the 25th of July, 1834. His *Life* was written by Gillman, and a volume of *Reminiscences* appeared in 1847 by Cottle, his publisher. See Shairp's “*Studies of Poetry*,” Hazlitt's “*English Poets*,” Swinburne's “*Essays and Studies*,” also Carlyle's “*Life of Sterling*.” The last named work should be read with caution.

WORKS OF COLERIDGE.



The following remarks, extracted from distinguished writers, and bearing on the works of Coleridge, especially the *Ancient Mariner*, will be found interesting and suggestive :—

The life of every day is going on gaily ; the wedding guests are close to the festal doors, when Mystery and Wonder suddenly interpose in the way, shutting out everything else around. The sounds of the other existence are heard through them ; and even by glimpses that life is visible—the merry minstrels “nodding their heads,” the bride in her blushes—but the unwilling listener has entered into the shadow, and the unseen has got hold of him. It is a parable not only of the ship and the albatross (which is hard of interpretation), but of mankind, a stranger upon earth, “moving about in worlds not realized,” always subject to be seized by powers, to which he is of kin, though he understands them not. “There is more of the invisible than the visible in the world,” is the poet’s motto, and with a great splendour and force of imagination he enforces his text. “There was a ship,” quoth he, and the weird vessel glides before the unwilling listener’s eyes, so that he can see nothing else. It comes between him and the feast, between him and the figures of his friends, which flit like ghosts out of the door. Which is the real, and which the vision ? The mind grows giddy, and is unable to judge ; and while everything tangible disappears, the unseen sweeps triumphantly in, and holds possession more real, more true, more unquestionable than anything that eye can see.

Throughout the poem this sentiment of isolation is preserved with a magical and most impressive reality. All the action is absolutely shut up within the doomed ship. The one man who is the chronicler of all, and to whose fate everything refers, is never withdrawn from our attention for a moment. We grow silent with him, “with throat unslaked, with black lips baked,” in a sympathy which is the very climax of poetic pain. And then what touches of tenderness are those which surprise us in the numbness and trance of awful solitude—

“O happy living things ;”—

or this other, which comes after the horror of the reanimated bodies, the ghastly crew of the dead-alive—

“For when it dawned ”—

When the tale has reached its height of mystery and emotion, a change ensues ; gradually the greater spell is removed. As

the voyage approaches its conclusion, ordinary instrumentalities appear once more.

This unexpected gentle conclusion* brings our feet back to the common soil with a bewildered sweetness of relief and soft quiet after the prodigious strain of mental excitement, which is nothing like anything else we can remember in poetry. The effect is one rarely produced, and which few poets have the strength and daring to accomplish: sinking from the highest notes of spiritual music to the absolute simplicity of exhausted nature.—MRS. OLIPHANT.

Of his best verses, I venture to affirm that the world has nothing like them, and can never have; that they are of the highest kind, and of their own. They are jewels of the diamond's price, flowers of the rose's rank, but unlike any rose or diamond known. * * *

This poem (the *Ancient Mariner*) is beyond question one of the supreme triumphs of poetry. For the execution, I presume no human eye is too dull to see how perfect it is, and how high in kind of perfection. Here is not the speckless and elaborate finish which shows everywhere the fresh rasp of file or chisel on its smooth and spruce excellence; this is faultless after the fashion of a flower or tree.

The finest of Coleridge's odes is beyond all doubt the "*Ode to France*." * * * The prelude is magnificent in music, and in sentiment and emotion far above any other of his poems; nor are the last notes inadequate to this majestic overture.

Of all Coleridge's poems, the loveliest is assuredly "*Christabel*." It is not so vast in scope and reach of imagination as the "*Ancient Mariner*;" it is not so miraculous as "*Kubla Khan*;" but for simple charm of inner and outer sweetness it is unequalled by either. The very terror and mystery of magical evil is imbued with this sweetness; the witch has no less of it than the maiden; their contact has in it nothing dissonant or disfiguring, nothing to jar or deface the beauty and harmony of the whole imagination.—SWINBURNE.

Coleridge's thought may be almost said to be as wide as life. To apply to himself the word which he first coined, or rather translated from some obscure Byzantian, to express Shakspeare's quality, he was a "*myriad-minded man*." He touched being at almost every point, and wherever he touched it, he opened up some new shaft of truth, and his books contain some fragments of what he saw.

If a man wished to learn what genuine criticism should be, where else in our country's literature would he find so worthy

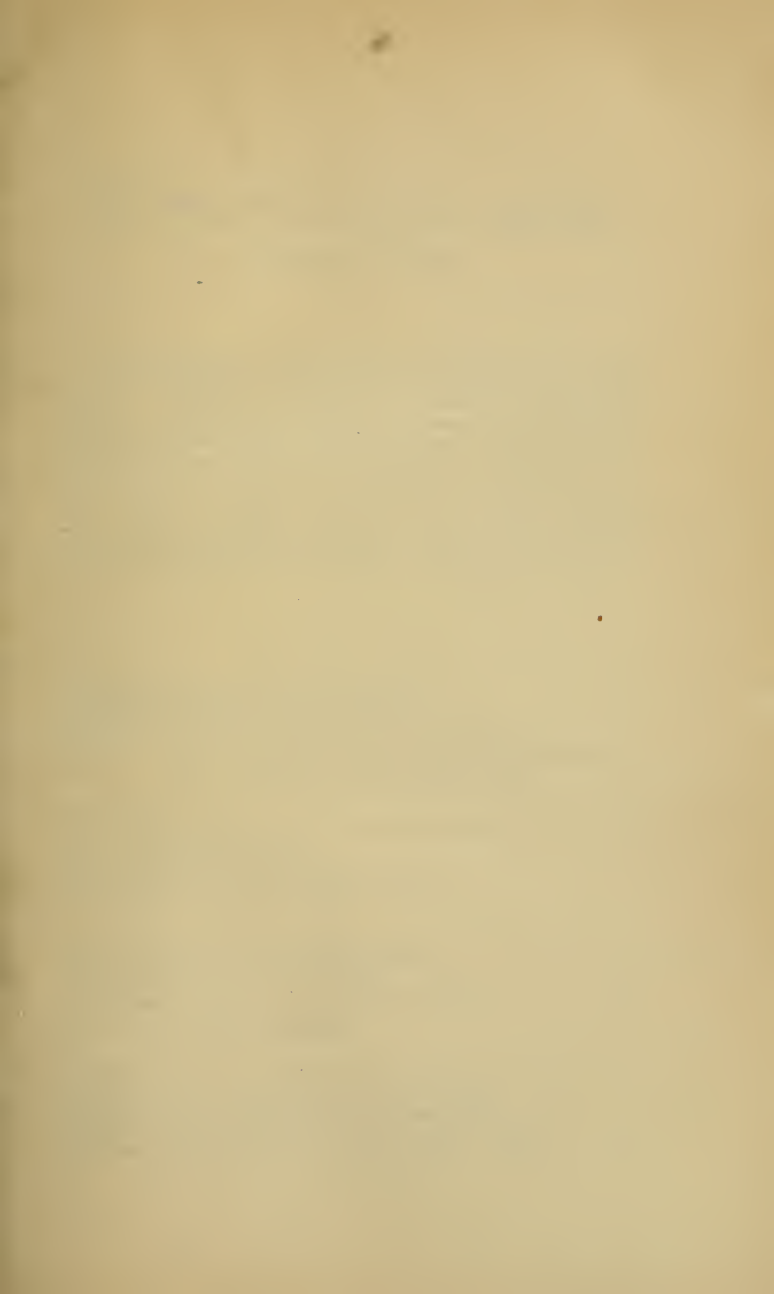
* In the lines, "*He prayeth best who loveth best*," &c.

a model as in that dissertation on Wordsworth? * * * In opposition to the blind and utterly worthless criticism which Jeffrey then represented, he thought out for himself and laid down the principles on which Wordsworth, or any poet such as he was, should be judged, and showed these principles to be grounded not on caprices of the hour, but on the fundamental and permanent elements which human nature contains. * * * There is more to be learned from that dissertation * * * than from all the reviews that have been written in English on poets and their works from Addison to the present hour.

But the best thing that can be said of him is, that he was a great religious philosopher. And by this how much is meant! Not a religious man and a philosopher merely, but a man in whom these two powers met and interpenetrated.

In this mood of men's minds, is there not something to be learnt from the experience of Wordsworth and Coleridge? Here were two men of amplest power, born into an age fuller of anarchic change than our own. They threw themselves fearlessly on their time, broke with old faiths and institutions in search of truth, set their faces to the wilderness, and after sojourning for a season there, came out on the other side and found peace. * * * If they returned in some sense to their first faiths, they did so, not in blind conservatism, not as grasping at mere tradition in despair of truth, but as having, after long soul-travail, discovered a meaning in old truths they had not divined before. After wandering many ways of thought, and having learnt in their wanderings to know themselves, they came back and found in Christian truth that which alone met their need.—PRINCIPAL SHARP.

Coleridge—blessings on his gentle memory! Coleridge was a frail mortal. He had, indeed, his peculiar weaknesses as well as his unique powers; sensibilities that an averted look would rack; a heart which would have beaten calmly in the trembling of an earthquake. He shrank from mere uneasiness like a child, and bore the preparatory agonies of his death-attack like a martyr. Sinned against a thousand times more than sinning, he himself suffered an almost life-long punishment for his errors, whilst the world at large has the unwithering fruits of his labours, his genius, and his sacrifice.—H. N. COLERIDGE.



THE RIME OF THE ANCIENT MARINER.

IN SEVEN PARTS.

“Facile credo, plures esse Naturas invisibiles quam visibiles in rerum universitate. Sed horum omnium familiam quis nobis enarrabit, et gradus et cognationes et discrimina et singulorum munera? Quid agunt? Quæ loca habitant? Harum rerum notitiam semper ambivit ingenium humanum, nunquam attingit. Juvat, interea, non diffiteor, quandoque in animo, tanquam in tabulâ, majoris et melioris mundi imaginem contemplari; ne mens assuefacta hodiernæ vitæ minutiis se contrahat nimis, et tota subsidat in pusillis cogitationes. Sed veritati interea invigilandum est, modusque servandus, ut certa ab incertis, diem a nocte, distinguamus.”—T. BURNET, *Archæol. Phil.* p. 68.

PART THE FIRST.

An ancient
Mariner meet-
eth three Gal-
lants bidden
to a wedding-
feast, and de-
taineth one.

It is an ancient Mariner,
And he stoppeth one of three,
"By thy long gray beard and glittering eye,
Now wherefore stopp'st thou me?"

“The Bridegroom’s doors are opened wide,
And I am next of kin ;
The guests are met, the feast is set :
May’st hear the merry din.”

He holds him with his skinny hand,
 "There was a ship," quoth he. 10
 "Hold off! unhand me, gray-beard loon!"
 Eftsoons his hand dropt he.

The Wedding-Guest is spell-bound by the eye of the old seafaring man, and constrained to hear his tale.

He holds him with his glittering eye—
The Wedding-Guest stood still,
And listens like a three years' child ; 15
The Mariner hath his will.

The Wedding-Guest sat on a stone ;
 He cannot choose but hear :
 And thus spake on that ancient man,
 The bright-eyed Mariner.

20

The ship was cheered, the harbour cleared,
 Merrily did we drop
 Below the kirk, below the hill,
 Below the lighthouse top.

The Mariner
tells how the
ship sailed
southward with
a good wind
and fair weath-
er, till it reach-
ed the line. The sun came up upon the left,
 Out of the sea came he !
 And he shone bright, and on the right
 Went down into the sea.

25

Higher and higher every day,
 Till over the mast at noon—
 The Wedding-Guest here beat his breast,
 For he heard the loud bassoon.

30

The Wedding-
Guest heareth
the bridal
music ; but the
Mariner con-
tinueth his
tale. The bride hath paced into the hall,
 Red as a rose is she.
 Nodding their heads before her goes
 The merry minstrelsy.

35

The Wedding-Guest he beat his breast,
 Yet he cannot choose but hear ;
 And thus spake on that ancient man
 The bright-eyed Mariner.

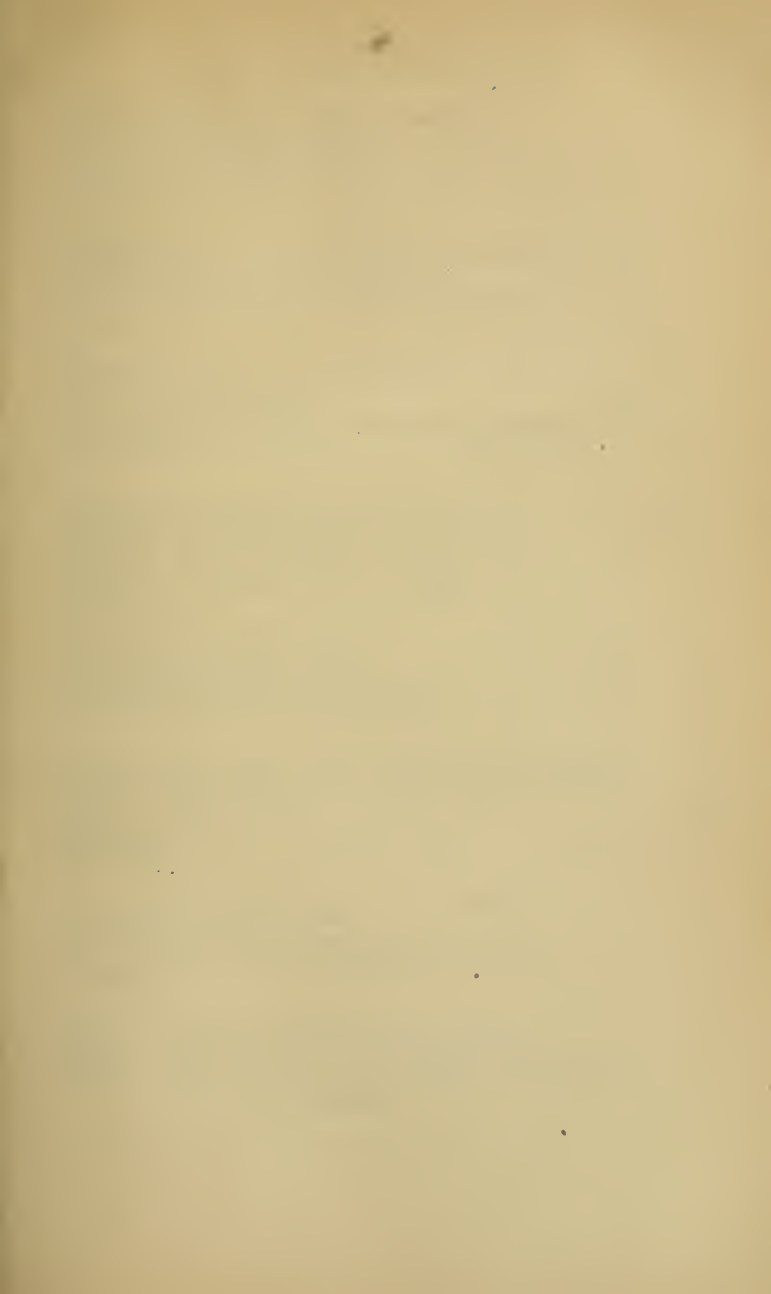
40

The ship drawn
by a storm
toward the
south pole. And now the storm-blast came, and he
 Was tyrannous and strong :
 He struck with his o'ertaking wings,
 And chased us south along.

With sloping masts and dipping prow,
 As who pursued with yell and blow
 Still treads the shadow of his foe,
 And forward bends his head,
 The ship drove fast, loud roared the blast,
 And southward aye we fled.

45

50



And now there came both mist and snow,
And it grew wondrous cold :
And ice, mast-high, came floating by,
As green as emerald.

The land of ice, And through the drifts the snowy clifts 55
and of fearful
sounds, where
Did send a dismal sheen :
no living thing
was to be seen. Nor shapes of men nor beasts we ken
The ice was all between.

The ice was here, the ice was there,
The ice was all around :
It cracked and growled, and roared and howled,
Like noises in a swound !

Till a great
sea-bird, called
the Albatross,
came through
the snow-fog
and was
received with
great joy and
hospitality.

At length did cross an Albatross :
Through the fog it came ;
As if it had been a Christian soul,
We hailed it in God's name.

65

It ate the food it ne'er had eat,
And round and round it flew.
The ice did split with a thunder-fit ;
The helmsman steered us through !

And lo ! the Albatross prov-
eth a bird of
good omen, and
followeth the
ship as it
returned north-
ward, through
fog and floating
ice.

And a good south wind sprung up behind ;
The Albatross did follow,
And every day, for food or play,
Came to the mariners' hollo !

In mist or cloud, on mast or shroud, 75
It perched for vespers nine ;
Whiles all the night, through fog-smoke white,
Glimmered the white moon-shine.

The Ancient
Mariner
inhospitably
killeth the
pious bird of
good omen.

“ God save thee, ancient Mariner !
From the fiends, that plague thee thus ! 80
Why look'st thou so ? ” — With my cross bow
I shot the Albatross !

PART THE SECOND.

The sun now rose upon the right :
 Out of the sea came he,
 Still hid in mist, and on the left 85
 Went down into the sea.

And the good south wind still blew behind,
 But no sweet bird did follow,
 Nor any day, for food or play,
 Came to the mariners' hollo ! 90

His shipmates cry out against the ancient Mariner, for killing the bird of good luck. And I had done a hellish thing,
 And it would work 'em woe ;
 For all averred, I had killed the bird
 That made the breeze to blow.

Ah wretch ! said they, the bird to slay 95
 That made the breeze to blow !

But when the fog cleared off, they justify the same, and thus make themselves accomplices in the crime. Nor dim nor red, like God's own head,
 The glorious sun uprist ;
 Then all averred, I had killed the bird
 That brought the fog and mist. 100
 'Twas right, said they, such birds to slay,
 That bring the fog and mist.

The fair breeze continues, the ship enters the Pacific Ocean and sails northward, even till it reaches the Line. The fair breeze blew, the white foam flew,
 The furrow* streamed off free :
 We were the first that ever burst 105
 Into that silent sea.

The ship hath been suddenly becalmed. Down dropt the breeze, the sails dropt down,
 'Twas sad as sad could be ;
 And we did speak only to break
 The silence of the sea ! 110

All in a hot and copper sky,
 The bloody sun, at noon,

* In the former edition the line was,

The furrow followed free ;

but I had not been long on board ship, before I perceived that this was the image as seen by a spectator from the shore, or from another vessel. From the ship itself the Wake appears like a brook flowing off from the stern.



Right up above the mast did stand,
No bigger than the Moon.

Day after day, day after day, 115
We stuck, nor breath, nor motion ;
As idle as a painted ship
Upon a painted ocean.

And the Albatross
begins to be
avenged. Water, water, every where,
And all the boards did shrink ; 120
Water, water, every where,
Nor any drop to drink.

The very deep did rot : O Christ !
That ever this should be !
Yea, slimy things did crawl with legs 125
Upon the slimy sea.

About, about, in reel and rout
The death fires danced at night ;
The water, like a witch's oils,
Burnt green, and blue, and white. 130

A spirit had followed them ;
one of the invisible
inhabitants of this planet,
neither departed souls
nor angels ; concerning
whom the learned Jew,
Josephus, and the Platonic
Constantinopolitan,
Michael Psellus, may be
consulted. And some in dreams assured were
Of the spirit that plagued us so :
Nine fathom deep he had followed us
From the land of mist and snow. [135]
And every tongue, through utter drought,
Was withered at the root :
We could not speak, no more than if
We had been choked with soot.
They are very numerous, and there is no climate or element without one or more.

The shipmates in their sore
distress, would fain throw the
whole guilt on the ancient
Mariner : in sign whereof
they hang the dead sea-bird round his n
Ah ! well-a-day ! what evil looks
Had I from old and young ! 140
Instead of the cross, the Albatross
About my neck was hung.

PART THE THIRD.

There passed a weary time. Each throat
 Was parched, and glazed each eye.
 A weary time ! a weary time ! 145

How glazed each weary eye !
 When looking westward, I beheld
 A something in the sky.

The ancient
 Mariner be-
 holdeth a sign
 in the element
 afar off.

At first it seemed a little speck,
 And then it seemed a mist : 150
 It moved and moved, and took at last
 A certain shape, I wist.

A speck, a mist, a shape, I wist !
 And still it neared and neared :
 As if it dodged a water-sprite, 155
 It plunged and tacked and veered.

At its nearer
 approach, it
 seemeth to
 him to be a
 ship ; and at a
 dear ransom he
 freeeth his
 speech from
 the bonds of
 thirst.

With throats unslaked, with black lips baked
 We could nor laugh nor wail ;
 Through utter drought all dumb we stood !
 I bit my arm, I sucked the blood, 160
 And cried, A sail ! a sail !

With throats unslaked, with black lips baked,
 Agape they heard me call :
 A flash of joy. Gramercy ! they for joy did grin,
 And all at once their breath drew in, 165
 As they were drinking all.

And horror
 follows. For
 when it be a ship
 that comes
 onward
 without wind
 or tide ?

See ! See ! (I cried) she tacks no more !
 Hither to work us weal ;
 Without a breeze, without a tide
 She steadies with upright keel ! 170

The western wave was all aflame,
 The day was well nigh done !
 Almost upon the western wave
 Rested the broad bright Sun ;
 When that strange shape drove suddenly 175
 Betwixt us and the Sun.



It seemeth him
but the
skeleton of a
ship. And straight the sun was flecked with bars,
(Heaven's mother send us grace !)
As if through a dungeon grate he peered,
With broad and burning face. 180

Alas ! (thought I, and my heart beat loud)
How fast she nears and nears !
Are those *her* sails that glance in the Sun,
Like restless gossamers ?

And its ribs
are seen as
bars on the
face of the
setting Sun.
The spectre-
woman and
her death-
mate, and no
other on board
the skeleton-
ship. Like
vessel, like
crew ! Are those *her* ribs through which the sun 185
Did peer, as through a grate ?
And is that Woman all her crew ?
Is that a DEATH ? and are there two ?
Is DEATH that woman's mate ?
Her lips were red, her looks were free, 190
Her locks were yellow as gold ;
Her skin was as white as leprosy,
The night-mare LIFE-IN-DEATH was she,
Who thicks men's blood with cold.

Death, and
Life-in-Death
have dined for
the ship's crew,
and she (the
latter) winneth
the ancient
Mariner. The naked hulk alongside came, 195
And the twain were casting dice ;
" The game is done ! I've won, I've won !"
Quoth she, and whistles thrice.

The Sun's rim dips ; the stars rush out :
At one stride comes the dark : 200
With far-heard whisper o'er the sea,
Off shot the spectre-bark.

We listened and looked sideways up !
Fear at my heart, as at a cup,
My life-blood seemed to sip ! 205
The stars were dim, and thick the night,
The steersman's face by his lamp gleamed white ;
From the sails the dew did drip —
Till clomb above the eastern bar
The horned Moon with one bright star 210
Within the nether tip.

At the rising
of the Moon.

One after another. One after one, by the star-dogged Moon,
 Too quick for groan or sigh,
 Each turned his face with a ghastly pang,
 And cursed me with his eye. 215

His shipmates drop down dead. Four times fifty living men,
 (And I heard nor sigh nor groan)
 With heavy thump, a lifeless lump,
 They dropped down one by one.

But Life-in-Death begins her work on the ancient Mariner. The souls did from the bodies fly,— 220
 They fled to bliss or woe !
 And every soul it passed me by,
 Like the whizz of my cross-bow !

PART THE FOURTH.

The Wedding-Guest feareth that a spirit is talking to him; " I fear thee, ancient Mariner !
 I fear thy skinny hand ! 225
 And thou art long, and lank, and brown,
 As is the ribbed sea-sand.*

" I fear thee and thy glittering eye,
 And thy skinny hand so brown."—
 But the ancient Mariner assur-eth him of his bodily life and proceedeth to relate his horrible penance. Fear not, fear not, thou Wedding-Guest ! 230
 This body dropt not down.
 Alone, alone, all, all alone,
 Alone on the wide, wide sea !
 And never a saint took pity on
 My soul in agony. 235

He despiseth the creatures of the calm. The many men, so beautiful !
 And they all dead did lie ;
 And a thousand thousand slimy things
 Lived on ; and so did I.

* For the last two lines of this stanza, I am indebted to Mr. Wordsworth. It was on a delightful walk from Nether Stowey to Dulverton with him and his sister, in the autumn of 1797, that this poem was planned, and in part composed.



And envieth that *they* should live,
 and so many lie dead. I looked upon the rotting sea, 240
 And drew my eyes away :
 I looked upon the rotting deck,
 And there the dead men lay.

I looked to Heaven, and tried to pray ;
 But or ever a prayer had gusht, 245
 A wicked whisper came, and made
 My heart as dry as dust.

I closed my lids, and kept them close,
 And the balls like pulses beat ;
 For the sky and the sea, and the sea and the sky 250
 Lay, like a load on my weary eye,
 And the dead were at my feet.

But the curse liveth for him in the eye of the dead men. The cold sweat melted from their limbs,
 Nor rot nor reek did they :
 The look with which they looked on me 255
 Had never passed away.

An orphan's curse would drag to Hell
 A spirit from on high ;
 But oh ! more horrible than that
 Is the curse in a dead man's eye ! 260
 Seven days, seven nights, I saw that curse,
 And yet I could not die.

In his loneliness and fix'dness, he yearneth towards the journeying Moon, and the stars that still sojourn, yet still move onward ; and every where the blue sky belongs to them, and is their appointed rest, and their native country and their own natural homes, which they enter unannounced, as lords that are certainly expected, and yet there is a silent joy at their arrival. The moving Moon went up the sky,
 And no where did abide :
 Softly she was going up, 265
 And a star or two beside—

Her beams bemoaned the sultry main,
 Like April hoar-frost spread ;
 But where the ship's huge shadow lay,
 The charmed water burnt alway
 A still and awful red.

By the light of the Moon he beholdeth God's Beyond the shadow of the ship,
 I watched the water-snakes :

creatures of
the great
calm. They moved in tracks of shining white,
And when they reared, the elfish light 275
Fell off in hoary flakes.

Within the shadow of the ship
I watched their rich attire :
Blue, glossy green, and velvet black,
They coiled and swam ; and every track 280
Was a flash of golden fire.

Their beauty
and their
happiness. O happy living things ! no tongue
Their beauty might declare :
A spring of love gushed from my heart,
And I blessed them unaware ! 285
He blesteth
them in his
heart. Sure my kind saint took pity on me,
And I blessed them unaware.

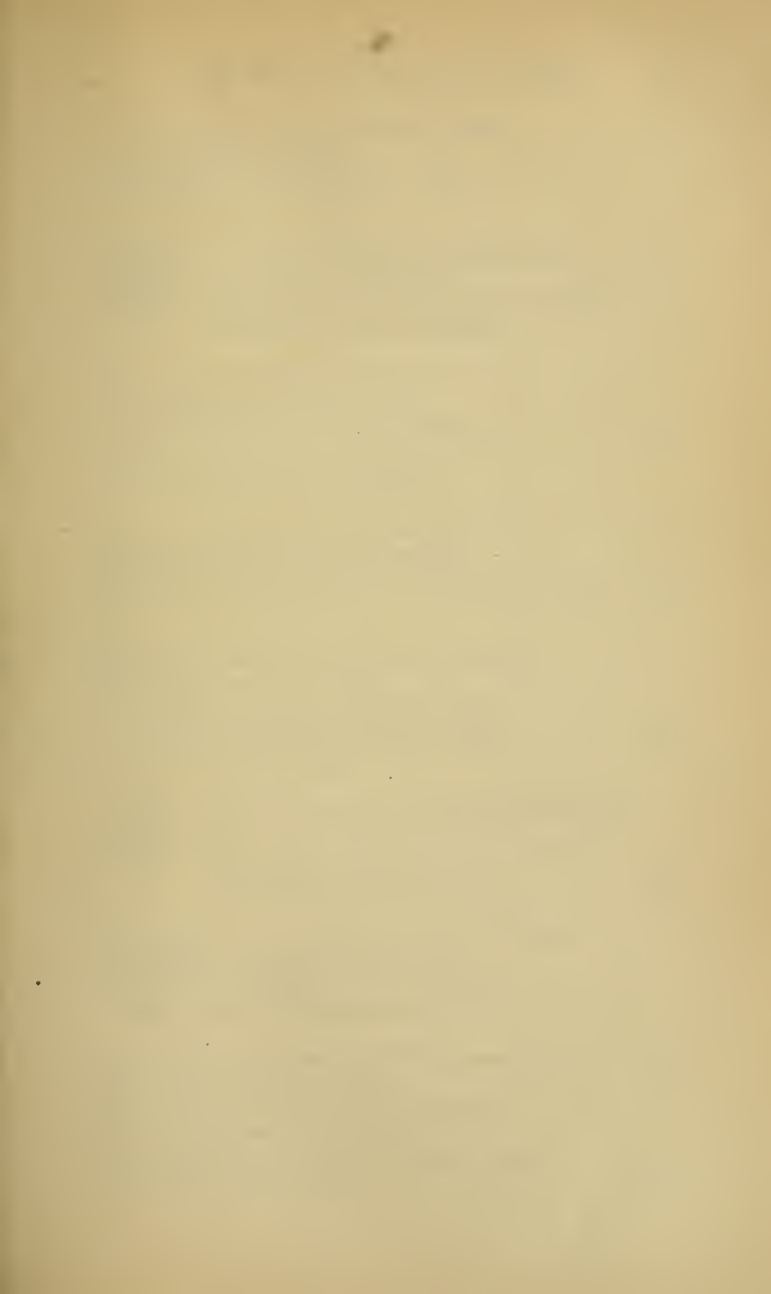
The spell
begins to
break. The self same moment I could pray ;
And from my neck so free
The Albatross fell off, and sank 290
Like lead into the sea.

PART THE FIFTH.

Oh, sleep ! it is a gentle thing,
Beloved from pole to pole !
To Mary Queen the praise be given !
She sent the gentle sleep from Heaven, 295
That slid into my soul.

By grace of
the Holy
Mother, the
Ancient
Mariner is
refreshed with
rain. The silly buckets on the deck,
That had so long remained,
I dreamt that they were filled with dew ;
And when I awoke, it rained. 300

My lips were wet, my throat was cold,
My garments all were dank ;
Sure I had drunken in my dreams,
And still my body drank.



I moved, and could not feel my limbs ; 305
 I was so light—almost
 I thought that I had died in sleep,
 And was a blessed ghost.

He heareth And soon I heard a roaring wind ;
 sounds, and It did not come anear ; 310
 seeth strange But with its sound it shook the sails,
 sights and That were so thin and sere.
 commotions in
 the sky and
 the element.

The upper air burst into life !
 And a hundred fire-flags sheen,
 To and fro they were hurried about ; 315
 And to and fro, and in and out,
 The wan stars danced between.

And the coming wind did roar more loud,
 And the sails did sigh like sedge ;
 And the rain poured down from one black cloud ; 320
 The Moon was at its edge.

The thick black cloud was cleft, and still
 The Moon was at its side ;
 Like waters shot from some high crag,
 'The lightening fell with never a jag, 325
 A river steep and wide.

The bodies of The loud wind never reached the ship,
 the ship's Yet now the ship moved on !
 crew are Beneath the lightning and the Moon
 inspirited and The dead men gave a groan. 330
 the ship
 moves on.

They groaned, they stirred, they all uprose,
 Nor spake, nor moved their eyes ;
 It had been strange, even in a dream,
 'To have seen those dead men rise.

The helmsman steered, the ship moved on ; 335
 Yet never a breeze up blew ;
 The mariners all 'gan work the ropes,
 Where they were wont to do :
 They raised their limbs like lifeless tools—
 We were a ghastly crew 340

The body of my brother's son
 Stood by me, knee to knee :
 The body and I pulled at one rope,
 But he said naught to me.

But not by the souls of the men, nor by demons of earth or middle air, but by a blessed troop of angelic spirits, sent down by the invocation of the guardian saint.

“ I fear thee ancient Mariner ;”
 Be calm, thou Wedding-Guest !
 'Twas not those souls that fled in pain,
 Which to their corse came again,
 But a troop of spirits blest :

345

For when it dawned—they dropped their arms,
 And clustered round the mast ;
 Sweet sounds rose slowly through their mouths,
 And from their bodies passed.

350

Around, around, flew each sweet sound,
 Then darted to the Sun ;
 Slowly the sounds came back again,
 Now mixed, now one by one.

355

Sometimes a-dropping from the sky
 I heard the sky-lark sing ;
 Sometimes all little birds that are,
 How they seemed to fill the sea and air
 With their sweet jargoning !

360

And now 'twas like all instruments,
 Now like a lonely flute ;
 And now it is an angel's song,
 That makes the heavens be mute.

365

It ceased ; yet still the sails made on
 A pleasant noise till noon,
 A noise like of a hidden brook
 In the leafy month of June,
 That to the sleeping woods all night
 Singeth a quiet tune.

370

Till noon we quietly sailed on,
 Yet never a breeze did breathe :



Slowly and smoothly went the ship,
 Moved onward from beneath. 375

The lonesome spirit from the south-pole carries on the ships as far as the line, in obedience to the angelic troop but still requireth vengeance. Under the keel nine fathom deep,
 From the land of mist and snow,
 The spirit slid ; and it was he
 That made the ship to go.
 The sails at noon left off their tune, 380
 And the ship stood still also.

The Sun, right up above the mast,
 Had fixed her to the ocean ;
 But in a minute she 'gan stir,
 With a short uneasy motion— 385
 Backwards and forwards half her length,
 With a short uneasy motion.

Then like a pawing horse let go,
 She made a sudden bound :
 It flung the blood into my head,
 And I fell down in a swoond.

The Polar Spirit's fellow-demons, the invisible inhabitants of the element, take part in his wrong ; and two of them relate, one to the other, that penance long and heavy for the ancient Mariner hath been accorded to the Polar Spirit who returneth southward. How long in that same fit I lay,
 I have not to declare ;
 But ere my living life returned,
 I heard, and in my soul discerned 395
 Two voices in the air.
 “ Is it he ? ” quoth one, “ is this the man ?
 By Him who died on cross,
 With his cruel bow he laid full low,
 The harmless Albatross. 400

“ The spirit who bideth by himself
 In the land of mist and snow,
 He loved the bird that loved the man
 Who shot him with his bow.”

The other was a softer voice,
 As soft as honey-dew : 405
 Quoth he, “ The man hath penance done
 And penance more will do.”

PART THE SIXTH.

First Voice.

“ But tell me, tell me ! speak again,
 Thy soft response renewing— 410
 What makes that ship drive on so fast ?
 What is the ocean doing ? ”

Second Voice.

“ Still as a slave before his lord,
 The ocean hath no blast ;
 His great bright eye most silently 415
 Up to the Moon is cast—

“ If he may know which way to go
 For she guides him smooth or grim,
 See, brother, see ! how graciously
 She looketh down on him.” 420

First Voice.

The Mariner
hath been cast
into a trance ;
for the angelic
power causeth
the vessel to
drive north-
ward faster
than human
life could
endure. “ But why drives on that ship so fast,
 Without or wave or wind ? ”

Second Voice.

“ The air is cut away before,
 And closes from behind.

Fly, brother, fly ! more high, more high ! 425
 Or we shall be belated :
 For slow and slow that ship will go,
 When the Mariner's trance is abated.”

The super-
natural motion
is retarded ;
the Mariner
awakes, and
his penance
begins anew. I woke, and we were sailing on
 As in a gentle weather : 430
 'Twas night, calm night, the Moon was high ;
 The dead men stood together.

All stood together on the deck,
 For a charnel-dungeon fitter :
 All fixed on me their stony eyes, 435
 That in the Moon did glitter.



The pang, the curse, with which they died,
 Had never passed away :
 I could not draw my eyes from theirs,
 Nor turn them up to pray. 440

The curse is
 finally
 expiated, And now this spell was snap't : once more
 I viewed the ocean green,
 And looked far forth, yet little saw
 Of what had else been seen—

Like one, that on a lonesome road 445
 Doth walk in fear and dread,
 And having once turned round, walks on
 And turns no more his head ;
 Because he knows, a fearful fiend
 Doth close behind him tread. 450

But soon there breathed a wind on me,
 Nor sound nor motion made :
 Its path was not upon the sea,
 In ripple or in shade.

It raised my hair, it fanned my cheek 455
 Like a meadow-gale of spring—
 It mingled strangely with my fears,
 Yet it felt like a welcoming.

Swiftly, swiftly flew the ship,
 Yet she sailed softly too : 460
 Sweely, sweetly blew the breeze—
 On me alone it blew.

The Ancient
 Mariner
 beholdeth his
 native
 country. Oh ! dream of joy ! is this indeed
 The lighthouse top I see ?
 Is this the hill ? is this the kirk ? 465
 Is this mine own countree ?

We drifted o'er the harbour-bar,
 And I with sobs did pray—
 O let me be awake, my God !
 O let me sleep alway.

The harbour-bay was clear as glass,
 So smoothly it was strewn ;
 And on the bay the moonlight lay,
 And the shadow of the Moon.

The rock shone bright, the kirk no less, 475
 That stands above the rock :
 The moonlight steeped in silentness
 The steady weathercock.

The angelic
spirits leave
the dead
bodies. And the bay was white with silent light,
 Till rising from the same, 480
 Full many shapes, that shadows were,
 In crimson colours came.

And appear
in their own
forms of light. A little distance from the prow
 Those crimson shadows were :
 I turned my eye upon the deck— 485
 Oh, Christ ! what saw I there !

Each corse lay flat, lifeless and flat,
 And, by the holy rood !
 A man all light, a seraph-man,
 On every corse there stood. 490

This seraph-band, each waved his hand,
 It was a heavenly sight !
 They stood as signals to the land,
 Each one a lovely light :

This seraph-band, each waved his hand, 495
 No voice did they impart—
 No voice ; but oh ! the silence sank
 Like music on my heart.

But soon I heard the dash of oars,
 I heard the Pilot's cheer ; 500
 My head was turned perforce away,
 And I saw a boat appear.

The Pilot, and the Pilot's boy,
 I heard them coming fast :



Dear Lord in Heaven ! it was a joy
The dead men could not blast. 505

I saw a third—I heard his voice ;
It is the Hermit good !
He singeth loud his godly hymns
That he makes in the wood. 510
He'll shrieve my soul, he'll wash away
The Albatross's blood.

PART THE SEVENTH.

The Hermit
of the Wood. This Hermit good lives in that wood
Which slopes down to the sea.

How loudly his sweet voice he rears ! 515
He loves to talk with marineres
That come from a far countree.

He kneels at morn, and noon, and eve—
He hath a cushion plump :
It is the moss that wholly hides 520
The rotted old oak stump

The skiff-boat neared ; I heard them talk,
“ Why, this is strange, I trow
Where are those lights so many and fair,
That signal made but now ? ” 525

Approacheth
the ship with
wonder. “ Strange, by my faith ! ” the Hermit said —
“ And they answered not our cheer !

The planks looked warped ! and see those sails,
How thin they are and sere !
I never saw aught like to them, 530
Unless perchance it were

“ Brown skeletons of leaves that lag
My forest-brook along ;
When the ivy-tod is heavy with snow,
And the owlet whoops to the wolf below, 535
That eats the she-wolf's young.”

“ Dear Lord it hath a fiendish look ”—
(The Pilot made reply)
“ I am a feared ”—“ Push on, push on ! ”
Said the Hermit cheerily.

The boat came closer to the ship,
But I nor spake nor stirred ;
The boat came close beneath the ship,
And straight a sound was heard.

The ship suddenly
sank.

Under the water it rumbled on,
Still louder and more dread :
It reached the ship, it split the bay ;
The ship went down like lead.

545

The ancient
 Mariner is
 saved in the
 Pilot's boat.

Stunned by that loud and dreadful sound,
 Which sky and ocean smote, 550
 Like one that hath been seven days drowned,
 My body lay afloat ;
 But swift as dreams, myself I found
 Within the Pilot's boat.

Upon the whirl, where sank the ship,
The boat spun round and round ;
And all was still, save that the hill
Was telling of the sound.

I moved my lips, the Pilot shrieked
And fell down in a fit ;
The holy Hermit raised his eyes,
And prayed where he did sit.

I took the oars ; the Pilot's boy,
Who now doth crazy go,
Laughed loud and long, and all the while
His eyes went to and fro. 565
“ Ha ! ha ! ” quoth he, “ full plain I see,
The Devil knows how to row.”

And now, all in my own countree,
I stood on the firm land !
The Hermit stepped forth from the boat,
And scarcely he could stand.



The ancient
Mariner
earnestly
entreated
the Hermit to
shrieve him;
and the
penance of
life falls on
him.

“ O shrieve me, shrieve me, holy man !”
The Hermit crossed his brow,
“ Say quick.” quoth he, “ I bid thee say— 575
What manner of man art thou ?”

Forthwith this frame of mine was wrenched
With a woful agony,
Which forced me to begin my tale
And then it left me free. 580

And ever and anon through-
out his future
life and agony
constraineth
him to travel
from land to
land.

Since then, at an uncertain hour,
That agony returns ;
And till my ghastly tale is told,
This heart within me burns.

I pass, like night, from land to land ; 585
I have strange power of speech ;
That moment that his face I see,
I know the man that must hear me :
To him my tale I teach.

What loud uproar bursts from that door ! 590
The wedding-guests are there ;
But in the garden-bower the bride
And bride-maids singing are ;
And hark the little vesper bell,
Which biddeth me to prayer ! 595

O Wedding-Guest ! this soul hath been
Alone on a wide wide sea :
So lonely 'twas, that God himself
Scarce seemed there to be.

O sweeter than the marriage-feast, 600
'Tis sweeter far to me,
To walk together to the kirk
With a goodly company !—

To walk together to the kirk,
And all together pray, 605
While each to his great Father bends,
Old men, and babes, and loving friends,
And youths and maidens gay !

And to teach
by his own
example, love
and reverence
to all things
that God
made and
loveth.

Farewell, farewell ! but this I tell
To thee, thou Wedding-Guest !
He prayeth well who loveth well
Both man and bird and beast.

610

He prayeth best, who loveth best
All things both great and small ;
For the dear God who loveth us
He made and loveth all.

615

The Mariner, whose eye is bright,
Whose beard with age is hoar,
Is gone ; and now the Wedding-Guest
Turned from the bridegroom's door.

620

He went like one that hath been stunned,
And is of sense forlorn :
A sadder and a wiser man,
He rose the morrow morn.



NOTES.

Rime, from O. E. *rim*, number, and quite unconnected with "rhythm." Hence the spelling *rhyme* disguises the etymology of the word.

2—*One of three*. In Part VII. the Mariner says :—

"The moment that his face I see,
I know the man that must hear me."

3—"By—eye." What ellipsis? It is briefer and livelier to make the Wedding-Guest thus refer to the striking features in the Mariner's appearance than for the poet formally to describe them. (Compare line 80 of this Part). Liveliness is gained, too, by the abrupt opening, "It is . . . Mariner."

7—Should "is set" and "are met" be parsed alike?

10—*Quoth*, preterite of *cweth-an*, to speak, now used only in the compound *bequeath*.

11—*Loon*, a base fellow. The first edition gives the passage thus :—

" 'There was a ship,' quoth he ;
'Nay, if thou'st got a laughsome tale,
Marinere ! come with me.'
He holds him with his skinny hand ;
Quoth he, ' There was a ship ;'—
' Now get thee hence, thou gray-beard Loon !
Or my staff shall make thee skip.'"

11—*Eftsoons*, properly "soon thereafter," the *eft* being the same word as *aft** (O. E. *æft*).

13—*His glittering eye*. This striking incident awakes our curiosity for what is to follow. The next couplet, written by Wordsworth, aptly expresses the height of interest and obedience.

21—Cheered. By whom?

23—*Kirk*. Though now only a Scottish and Northern form, *kirk* was once the proper word ; thus in "Piers Plowman" we read :—"The King and his knihtes to the kirk went." Coleridge uses a few archaic expressions, *e. g.*, "eftsoons" above, in order to give an antique flavour to his style. In the first edition, this was quite overdone.

25—*The sun*. This marks the loneliness and monotony of the voyage.

35—*Nodding*. The "Dark Ladie" says of her intended bridal procession :—

"But first the nodding minstrels go
With music meet for lordly bowers."

* The meaning of *soon* seems to have in time attached itself to the *eft*. whence Dogberry's "effest way."

Hales points out that Coleridge is correct in using "minstrels" for "musicians," not, like Scott, for "poets."

46—*As who.* *Who* is here an indefinite pronoun equivalent to *one*. So in Shakspeare's "*As who should say*," *i. e.*, "*As one would say*."

47—*Treads the shadow.* Runs on ground overshadowed by his foe; *i. e.*, is hotly pursued. This well expresses the sailors' fear and desperate efforts. *Still*, constantly. Note what life is thrown into the description by the personification, and by the comparison of the ship to the fugitive. This was not found in the first edition.

51-62—A short but powerful description of a sea full of icebergs. Note the touch of color in l. 54, and the imitative melody ("onomatopœia") in l. 61.

56—*Sheen*, brightness, akin to *shine*.

57—*Ken*, discern.

62—*Swound*, formed from *swoon* by adding *d*; Cf. *sound* from Fr. *son*, and the vulgar "sudden-t." Strange noises are heard by some people when fainting.

63—*Albatross*, a corruption of Portuguese *alcatraz*, in which *al*—is perhaps an article, as in *al-gebra*, *al-cohol*. The wandering albatross (*Diomedea exulans*), allied to the petrels, but "rivaling the condor in size and strength of wing," is an Antarctic bird abounding in the region of storms, near the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn. The introduction of the albatross was suggested by Wordsworth, who had just read in Shelvocke's *Voyages* that near Cape Horn albatrosses are often seen, some extending their wings ten or fifteen feet.*

66—*We hailed it in God's name.* Which makes the Mariner's conduct the more impious.

67—*Food*, *i. e.*, such as, &c. The original reading was:—

"The marineres gave it biscuit worms."

The omission of such graphic details, if at all homely, characterizes the "graceful" style, as described in Abbott's "English Lessons."

69-70—The ignorant sailors attribute their deliverance to the bird, which also adds to the Mariner's guilt and to their own.

71—"Wind" in poetry must be pronounced so as to rhyme with "behind."

74—*Hoilo.* This accentuation accounts for the vulgar "holler."

* How flimsy is De Quincy's charge of p'agarism against Coleridge, based on this mention of the albatross without acknowledgment of indebtedness to Shelvocke, an author whom Wordsworth thought Coleridge had never read.

75—*Shroud*, rope ladders supporting the masts. Its tameness and long continuance are mentioned as aggravating the crime.

76—*Vespers*; here in its primitive sense of “evenings.”

77—*Whiles*. Genitive of while, time. Another archaism.

79—*Save*. “Subjunctive of wish.” The hearer’s horrified exclamation pictures to us, better than a long description could, the Mariner’s agony.

80—*Fiends*, lit. haters, enemies (Cf. “our ghostly enemy”), originally a participle of O. E. *feón*, to hate.

PART II.

83—In what direction were they now sailing?

88—*Sweet*. A natural epithet in the mouth of a sailor, especially when conscience-stricken for having killed one.

97—*Like God’s own head*. Supply *but*. The seeming irreverence of this comparison arises from the ignorant simplicity of the Mariner.

98—*Uprist*, a weak preterite for *uprose*. As many of our weak verbs were once strong, there must have been a time when strong and weak forms were in use together, as is now the case with *awake*, *thrive*, &c. In most instances the weak form prevailed; but in a few it did not, as it were, take root, which is the case with “*uprist*,” as with “*understanded*.”

102—*That*. Equivalent to “for they.” By thus approving the Mariner’s crime, the crew make themselves partners of his guilt and punishment.

103-6—This stanza contains two sources of “musical delight” which cannot be kept up throughout a whole poem, viz., internal rhyme (*blew*, *flew*; *first*, *burst*), and alliteration (*breeze blew*, *foam flew*, *furrow off free*). Most editions keep the earlier reading, “The furrow followed free.” (See the footnote.) The change illustrates the poet’s fidelity to nature.

107—*Sails dropt down*. Hung slack instead of bellying out with the wind. Observe how simple the language is, and yet how full of meaning, especially in lines 109-10.

111—*Copper*. A vivid epithet whose correctness is confirmed by those who have been becalmed in the “Doldrums.”

117—*Painted*, in a picture.

119—*Water everywhere*. This aggravated their distress, as did the shrinking of the ship’s planks through the drought and heat.

123—In the Middle Ages, even pious people (for instance Langland in “*Piers Plowman*”) were given to uttering sacred names with a freedom that to us seems like downright profanity. The Mariner’s feelings, too, are harrowed up by recalling the rightful scene.

125—*With legs.* This seemed unnatural and as if the order of the universe were disturbed.

128—*Death-fires.* Luminous appearances, vulgarly called "corpse candles." They are generally caused by the combustion of gases evolved from decaying organic matter. Here they must have been of electric origin, but resembling those seen on land.

132—*The spirit.* We afterwards learn that it was

"The spirit who bideth by himself
In the land of mist and snow."

138—*Choked with soot.* This homely phrase, as well as the double negative in the preceding line, is in keeping with the Mariner's station in life. Is *soot* a perfect rhyme for *root*?

139—*Well-to-day*, a corruption of wellaway, which is itself a corruption of O. E. wá lá wá, woe! lo! woe!

141—*Insteal of the cross.* The substitution of the murdered bird for the emblem of redemption showed that his shipmates deemed his crime unpardonable, and laid the whole blame on him.

PART III.

145—*A weary time!* This emphatic repetition (Epizeuxis) is particularly appropriate here. Why? *Weary* is connected not with *wear*, but with O. E. worian, to wander; so that it means "as one feels after wandering."

152—*Wist*, properly "knew," here rather "perceived." It is the past of wot, O. E. wát, pret. wiste, inf. wit-an, to wit.

155—*Dodged*, "were dodging." This is not necessarily an undignified word; thus Milton says, "some dodging casuist." It is probably akin to *dodder*, not to *dog*.

156—*Veer*, to swerve, lit. to go in a circle (Fr. vir-er, Lat. viria, a large ring), implies more sudden turns than "tack," as a vessel may sail for a long distance on one tack.

164—*Gramercy.* Great thanks (Fr. grand merci). *Grin.* "I took the thought of grinning for joy . . . from poor Burnett's remark to me when we had climbed to the top of Plinlimmon, and were nearly dead with thirst. We could not speak from the constriction, till we found a little puddle under a stone. He said to me, 'You grinned like an idiot!' He had done the same."—*Coleridge.* The student should point out the various graphic touches in this and the next stanza.

165—The "flash of joy" only heightens the horror that follows.

168—*Hither.* Supply "nor comes." Her "steadying with upright keel," as well as her moving in a calm, shews her to be no human ship, as vessels in a calm roll so that if two fell foul of each other, they might grind each other to the water's edge.

177—The skeleton ship was suggested by a dream of a Mr. C.ruikshank's, a friend of Coleridge's.

184—*Gossameres*. Webs of the gossamer spider which float on the air. Note how dramatically all the circumstances are introduced by way of speaking, not of narrating.

185—In the first edition these lines occur :—

"Are these *her* naked ribs, which flecked
The sun that did behind them peer?
And are these two all, all her crew,
That woman and her fleshless Pheere?

His bones were black with many a crack,
All black and bare I ween;
Jet black and bare, save where with rust
Of mouldy damp and charnel crust
They're patch'd with purple and green.

* * * * *
A gust of wind sterte up behind,
And whistled thr' his bones,
Thro' the holes of his eyes, and the hole of his mouth
Half whistles and half groans.

Their omission shews the ripened taste of the poet.

196—For explanation see the author's marginal note.

200—"At one stride" well expresses the sudden closing in of night within the tropics, where there is no twilight.

203—*Sideways*. Fearful of seeing again these terrible beings. The ghastly suspense, produced by the figure in "Fear . . . sip," and the various particulars in the description, is prolonged by the unusual length and peculiar structure of the stanza.

209—*The eastern bar*, the horizon. *One bright star*. The poet is true to nature in making so minute a particular print itself on the Mariner's horror-stricken brain.

212—*Star-dogged*. Contrast this epithet with lines 263-6 and the marginal note thereon. The difference arises from our natural and involuntary habit of conceiving our emotions to be reflected in the varying aspects of nature. Compare Dejection, l. 47-9.

221—*Bliss or woe*. So that death is not regarded as in itself a punishment. This is an answer to the objection that the innocent crew are punished, while the guilty Mariner escapes, which is far from the poet's conception.

223—*Like the whizz of my cross-bow*. Thus reminding him of his crime.

PART IV.

226-7—This couplet, Coleridge says, was written by Wordsworth. *Ribb'd*, marked with ridges thrown up by the successive waves.

232—Why is *alone* repeated so often?

240—Observe the various terrors of his penance—loneliness, self-loathing (he ranks himself with the "slimy things"), horrors wherever he looked, torture when he closed his eyes, inability to pray.

245—*Or ever*. *Or* is not the alternative *or* (O. E. *other*), but a doublet of *ere*, both coming from O. E. *ær*, whence *early* and *erst*. What forcible expression in this stanza? What figure in *gush't*?

254—*Reek*, smell; literally smoke.

263.—This is the turning point of the story. The beauty of creation overcomes his evil disposition, and a spirit of love for all God's creatures enters his soul.

273—*Water-snakes*. "Captain Kingman, in lat. 8° 46' S., long. 105° 30' E., passed through a tract of water, . . . so full of minute (and some not very minute) animal organisms, as to present the aspect at night of a boundless plain covered with snow. Some of these animals were 'serpents' of six inches in length, of transparent gelatinous consistency and very luminous.

"The Phosphorescence of the Ocean . . . strikes all who witness it with wonder and admiration. It proceeds from a great variety of marine organisms. . . . They mostly shine when excited by a blow, or by agitation of the water. . . . or in the wake of a ship. In the latter case are often seen what appear to be large lumps of light rising from under the keel."—*Herschel's Physical Geography*, 31 and 32.

275—*Elfish*. Like that of fairyland, "elf" being the pure English for "fairy."

284—*Spring*. Shew that this metaphor is here the most natural mode of expression.

286—*My kind saint*. His patron after whom he was named.

PART V.

297—*Silly* must be taken in the sense "useless," rather a perversion of the older meaning "simple," which is itself a degradation of the original meaning "blessed."

302—*Dank*, moist, damp; probably is not connected with the latter word, but with Icelandic *dögg*, dew.

306—*Almost* modifies thought.

312—*Sere*, otherwise spelled, *scar*, dry withered.

314—*Sheen*, bright, fair, was originally, as here, an adjective. The ballad of "Robin Hood and Guy of Gisborne" begins, "When shaws be sheene," *i. e.*, when woods are shining. *Wan*, pale; *i. e.*, in comparison with the fires.

325—*Flag*, a break. The comparison of lightning to a cata-ract well pictures the wonderful display of electricity witnessed in tropical storms; not flashes, but continuous sheets of flame.

333—*Had been*; would have been.

335—This striking incident, which was suggested by Wordsworth, might be objected to as burdening the story with needless supernatural interference. We may, however, consider that we receive ample amends in the weird picture contained in lines 313-26, and in the beautiful description in lines 357-371.

344—*Said nought to me.* For it was only the body (see 347) of his nephew. In the first edition these forcible lines follow :—

“And I quak’d to think of my own voice
How frightful it would be.”

358—The first edition had “lavrock,” which Coleridge has changed to the modern “skylark,” wisely thinking that the poem needs no more than an occasional archaic form.

361—*Fargoning*, confused and mingled notes.

394—*Living life.* Corporeal life. Here begins a dialogue between two spirits representing Justice and Mercy.

406—*Honey-dew*, a sweet substance found in drops like dew on trees and other plants.

PART VI.

416-7—The well-known fact that the moon’s influence upon the ocean is here skillfully turned to account. We see now why the “star-dogged moon” shines upon the death scene in Part III. Compare line 431.

418—*Smooth or grim* ; adjectives used by *prolepsis* (anticipation) as predicates of *him*.

434—*Charnel.* A charnel house (L. carn-em, flesh) was one in which corpses were placed, or into which bones were removed from the churchyard when the bodies were decayed. *Fitter* applies to *all*.

444. *Had*=would have. He was too full of vague terror (powerfully pictured in the succeeding stanza) to mark what presented itself to his eyes.

454—*Ripple or in shade.* It neither agitated nor cast a shade upon the sea. Even a “cat’s-paw” darkens the water.

451—Note how the contrast with the scene of horror just past heightens the tender beauty with the succeeding stanzas. *It mingled strangely with my fears.* Perhaps because it was supernatural : “its path was not upon the sea.”

466—*Countree.* The archaic accent may be justified as giving an antique tone to the language.

470-1—Observe the beauty and force of these lines, and also of :

“The moonlight steeped in silentness,
The steady weathercock.”

“They silence sank
Like music on my heart.”

476—In the first edition the corpses rose once more, and

“They lifted up their stiff right arms,
They held them strait and tight,
And each right arm burned like a torch,
A torch that’s borne upright,
Their stony eye-balls glittered on
In the red and smoky light.”

We cannot regret their omission, as they are too like a caricature of the scene in 433-5, and moreover are out of keeping with the prevailing tone of this part of the poem, which is one of peace and forgiveness.

488—*Rood* = cross. from O. E. *rôd* a gallows, originally a pole or *rod*.

489—*Seraph*. One of the highest order of angels, a singular formed from the Hebrew *serâphim*, literally "exalted ones."

493—*Signals*, *i. e.*, for a pilot.

495—This is an impressive farewell sent from the bodies of his shipmates. We now leave the domain of the supernatural.

505—*Dear Lord*, an exclamation of thankfulness.

508—*Hermit*. A corruption of *eremite* (or *æremite*), a dweller in the wilderness (Gr. *eremos*).

511—*Shrieve*, usually spelled *shrive*, to hear a confession (whence Shrove-Tuesday), probably through O. E. *scrifan* from Lat. *scribere*, to write, especially a law, hence to impose a penalty, whence the notion of imposing a penance might spring.

PART VII.

515—*Rears* = raises, the true English causative of *rise*, *raise* being Norse (Icel. *reisa*). For the change of *s* to *r* compare *where* with *was*.

522—*Skiff-boat*, a repetition, *skiff* being only a particular kind of boat.

523—*Trow*, think, literally consider *true*. *Trow* comes from *true*.

530-6—Why is the unkempt condition of the ship so dwelt upon?

534—*Tod*, a bush.

539—*A-fear'd*, literally "put in fear." Cf. "anear," 310.

546—*Still* = ever. *i. e.*, increasingly loud.

559—What does the poet indicate by the different effects on occupants of the boat?

572—So overcome was even he by astonishment and horror. Coleridge is true to the great principle of leaving the reader to infer the appearance of the Mariner from its effects on those who met him.

578—*Agony* (Gr. *agonia*, a contest, wrestling, a struggle), marks the *outward* effects of pain. Hence its appropriateness here.

583—*Ghastly*, M. E. *gastly*, O. E. *gæstlic*, terrible—which is akin to Gothic *us-gaisjan*, to terrify—has no connection with *ghost*, from which perhaps its *h* crept in.

590—*Up-roar*. This suggestive contrast of the boisterous revelry of the rude guests with the singing of the bride and her

maids, and the vesper bell's call to prayer naturally introduces the concluding reflections on the delightfulness of Divine service, and on the spirit of love to all God's creatures, "without which all our doings are nothing worth."

623—*Sadder*, more serious ; so, "Speak you this with a sad brow?" (Shak., *Ado* 1, 1).

It is interesting to read Coleridge's own opinion of the *Ancient Mariner* as found in his *Table Talk* :—"Mrs. Barbauld once told me that she admired the *Ancient Mariner* very much, but that there were two faults in it—it was improbable, and had no moral. As for the probability, I owned that it might admit some question ; but as to the want of a moral, I told her that in my own judgment the poem had too much ; and that the only, or chief fault, if I might say so, was the obtrusion of the moral sentiment so openly on the reader as a principle or cause of action in a work of such pure imagination."

The moral referred to is contained evidently in the last stanza but two. The student should be able to shew where else the moral has been "obtruded on the reader."

SELECT ODES

FROM

SAMUEL TAYLOR COLERIDGE.



ODES.



ODE TO THE DEPARTING YEAR.*

Ἰοὺν, ἰοὺν, ὦ ὦ κακά,
 Ὑπ' αὖ με δεινὸς ὀρθομαντείας πότιος
 Στροβιλῆ, ταρασσὼν ὀροίμοις ἐφημίοις.
 Τὸ μέλλον ἤξει. Καὶ σὺ μ' ἐν τᾷ χει παρὼν
 "Ἄγαν γ' ἀληθόμεντιν οἰκτείρας ἐρεῖς.

Æschyl. Agam. 1214.

ARGUMENT.

THE Ode commences with an address to the Divine Providence, that regulates into one vast harmony all the events of time, however calamitous some of them may appear to mortals. The second Strophe calls on men to suspend their private joys and sorrows, and devote them for a while to the cause of human nature in general. The first Epode speaks of the Empress of Russia, who died of an apoplexy on the 17th of November, 1796 ; having just concluded a subsidiary treaty with the Kings combined against France. The first and second Antistrophe describe the image of the Departing Year, &c., as in a vision. The second Epode prophesies, in anguish of spirit, the downfall of this country.

I.

Spirit who sweepst the wild harp of Time !
 It is most hard, with an untroubled ear
 Thy dark inwoven harmonies to hear !
 Yet, mine eye fixed on Heaven's unchanging clime,
 Long had I listened, free from mortal fear, 5
 With inward stillness, and a bowed mind ;
 When lo ! its folds far waving on the wind,
 I saw the train of the departing Year !
 Starting from my silent sadness,
 Then with no unholy madness 10
 Ere yet the entered cloud foreclosed my sight,
 I raised the impetuous song, and solemnised his flight.

* This Ode was composed on the 24th, 25th, and 26th days of December, 1796 ; and was first published on the last day of that year.

II.

Hither, from the recent tomb,
 From the prison's direr gloom,
 From distemper's midnight anguish ; 15
 And thence, where Poverty doth waste and languish !
 Or where, his two bright torches blending,
 Love illumines manhood's maze,
 Or where o'er cradled infants bending
 Hope has fixed her wishful gaze ; 20
 Hither, in perplexed dance,
 Ye Woes ! ye young-eyed Joys ! advance.

By Time's wild harp, and by the hand
 Whose indefatigable sweep
 Raises its fateful strings from sleep, 25
 I bid you haste, a mixed tumultuous band !
 From every private bower,
 And each domestic hearth,
 Haste for one solemn hour ;
 And with a loud and yet a louder voice, 30
 O'er Nature struggling in portentous birth,
 Weep and rejoice !
 Still echoes the dread name that o'er the earth
 Let slip the storm, and woke the brood of hell :
 And now advance in saintly jubilee 35
 Justice and Truth ! They too have heard thy spell !
 They too obey thy name, divinest Liberty !

III.

I marked Ambition in his war array !
 I heard the mailed Monarch's troublous cry : [40
 " Ah ! wherefore does the Northern Conqueress stay !
 Groans not her chariot on its onward way ?"
 Fly, mailed Monarch, fly !
 Stunned by Death's twice mortal mace,
 No more on murder's lurid face
 The insatiate hag shall gloat with drunken eye ! 45
 Manes of the unnumbered slain !
 Ye that gasped on Warsaw's plain !



Ye that erst at Ismail's tower,
 When human ruin choked the streams,
 Fell in conquest's glutt'd hour, 50
 'Mid women's shrieks and infants' screams !
 Spirits of the uncoffined slain,
 Sudden blasts of triumph swelling,
 Oft, at night, in misty train,
 Rush around her narrow dwelling ! 55
 The exterminating fiend is fled—
 (Foul her life, and dark her doom)
 Mighty armies of the dead
 Dance, like death-fires, round her tomb !
 Then with prophetic song relate, 60
 Each some tyrant-murderer's fate !

IV.

Departing Year ! 'twas on no earthly shore
 My soul beheld thy vision ! Where alone,
 Voiceless and stern, before the cloudy throne,
 Aye Memory sits : thy robe inscribed with gore, 65
 With many an unimaginable groan
 Thou storiedst thy sad hours ! Silence ensued,
 Deep silence o'er the ethereal multitude,
 Whose locks with wreaths, whose wreaths with glories
 shone.
 Then, his eye wild ardours glancing, 70
 From the choired gods advancing,
 The Spirit of the Earth made reverence meet,
 And stood up, beautiful, before the cloudy seat.

V.

Throughout the blissful throng,
 Hushed were harp and song : 75
 Till wheeling round the throne the Lampads seven,
 (The mystic words of Heaven)
 Permissive signal make :
 The fervent Spirit bowed, then spread his wings and
 spake !
 " Thou in stormy blackness throning 80
 Love and uncreated Light,
 By the Earth's unsolaced groaning,
 Seize thy terrors, Arm of might !

By peace with proffered insult scared,
 Masked hate and envying scorn ! 85
 By years of havoc yet unborn !
 And hunger's bosom to the frost-winds bared !
 But chief by Afric's wrongs,
 Strange, horrible, and foul !
 By what deep guilt belongs 90
 To the deaf Synod, 'full of gifts and lies !'
 By wealth's insensate laugh ! by torture's howl !
 Avenger, rise !
 For ever shall the thankless Island scowl.
 Her quiver full, and with unbroken bow ? 95
 Speak ! from thy storm-black Heaven O speak aloud !
 And on the darkling foe-
 Open thine eye of fire from some uncertain cloud !
 O dart the flash ! O rise and deal the blow !
 The Past to thee, to thee the Future cries ! 100
 Hark ! how wide Nature joins her groans below !
 Rise, God of Nature ! rise."

VI.

The voice had ceased, the vision fled ;
 Yet still I gasped and reeled with dread.
 And ever, when the dream of night 105
 Renews the phantom to my sight,
 Cold sweat-drops gather on my limbs ;
 My ears throb hot ; my eye-balls start ;
 My brain with horrid tumult swims ;
 Wild is the tempest of my heart ; 110
 And my thick and struggling breath
 Imitates the toil of death !
 No stranger agony confounds
 The soldier on the war-field spread,
 When all foredone with toil and wounds, 115
 Death-like he dozes among heaps of dead !
 (The strife is o'er, the daylight fled,
 And the night-wind clamours hoarse !
 See ! the starting wretch's head
 Lies pillowed on a brother's corse !) 120



VII.

Not yet enslaved, not wholly vile,
 O Albion ! O my mother Isle !
 Thy valleys, fair as Eden's bowers,
 Glitter green with sunny showers ;
 Thy grassy uplands' gentle swells 125
 Echo to the bleat of flocks ;
 (Those grassy hills, those glittering dells
 Proudly ramparted with rocks)
 And Ocean mid his uproar wild
 Speaks safety to his island-child. 130
 Hence for many a fearless age
 Has social Quiet loved thy shore ;
 Nor ever proud invader's rage
 Or sacked thy towers, or stained thy fields with gore.

VIII.

Abandoned of Heaven, mad avarice thy guide, 135
 At cowardly distance, yet kindling with pride—
 Mid thy herds and thy corn-fields secure thou hast
 stood,
 And joined the wild yelling of famine and blood !
 The nations curse thee ! They with eager wondering
 Shall hear Destruction, like a vulture, scream ! 140
 Strange-eyed Destruction ! who with many a dream
 Of central fires through nether seas upthundering
 Soothes her fierce solitude ; yet as she lies
 By livid fount, or red volcanic stream,
 If ever to her lidless dragon-eyes, 145
 O Albion ! thy predestined ruins rise,
 The fiend-hag on her perilous couch doth leap,
 Muttering distempered triumph in her charmed sleep.

IX.

 Away, my soul, away !
 In vain, in vain the birds of warning sing— 150
 And hark ! I hear the famished brood of prey
 Flap their lank pennons on the groaning wind !
 Away, my soul, away !
 I unpartaking of the evil thing,
 With daily prayer and daily toil 155
 Soliciting for food my scanty soil,

Have wailed my country with a loud Lament.
Now I recentre my immortal mind

In the deep sabbath of meek self-content ;
Cleansed from the vaporous passions that bedim 160
God's Image, sister of the Seraphim.

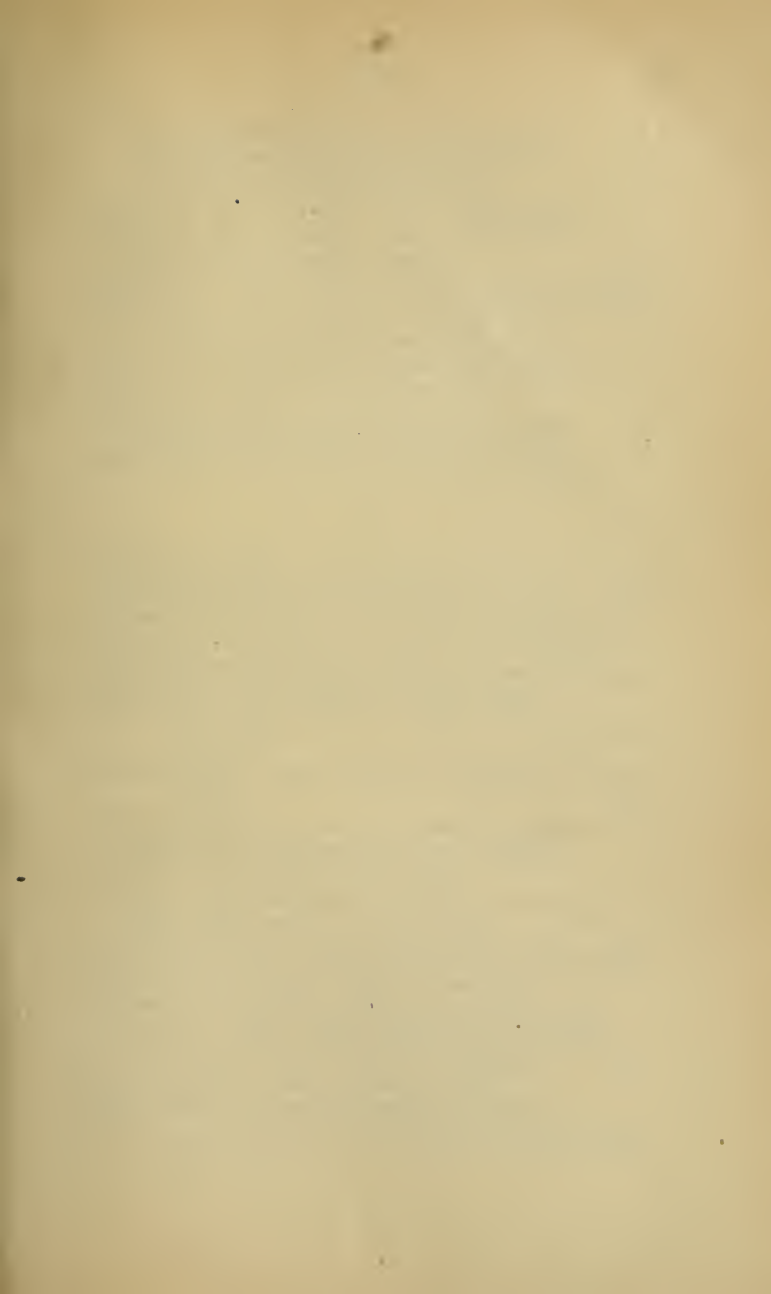
FRANCE.—AN ODE.

I.

Ye Clouds ! that far above me float and pause,
Whose pathless march no mortal may control !
Ye Ocean Waves ! that, wheresoe'er ye roll,
Yield homage only to eternal laws !
Ye Woods ! that listen to the night-birds singing, 5
Midway the smooth and perilous slope reclined,
Save when your own imperious branches swinging,
Have made a solemn music of the wind !
Where, like a man beloved of God,
Through glooms, which never woodman trod, 10
How oft, pursuing fancies holy,
My moonlight way o'er flowering weeds I wound,
Inspired, beyond the guess of folly,
By each rude shape and wild unconquerable sound !
O ye loud Waves ! and O ye Forests high ! 15
And O ye Clouds that far above me soared !
Thou rising Sun ! thou blue rejoicing Sky !
Yea, every thing that is and will be free !
Bear witness for me, wheresoe'er ye be,
With what deep worship I have still adored 20
The spirit of divinest Liberty.

II.

When France in wrath her giant limbs upreared,
And with that oath, which smote air, earth and sea,
Stamped her strong foot and said she would be free,
Bear witness for me, how I hoped and feared ! 25
With what a joy my lofty gratulation
Unawed I sang, amid a slavish band :
And when to whelm the disenchanted nation,





Like fiends embattled by a wizard's wand,
 The Monarchs marched in evil day, 30
 And Britain joined the dire array ;
 Though dear her shores and circling ocean,
 Though many friendships, many youthful loves
 Had swol'n the patriot emotion [35
 And flung a magic light o'er all her hills and groves ;
 Yet still my voice, unaltered, sang defeat
 To all that braved the tyrant-quelling lance,
 And shame too long delayed and vain retreat !
 For ne'er, O Liberty, with partial aim
 I dimmed thy light or damped thy holy flame ; 40
 But blessed the pæans of delivered France,
 And hung my head and wept at Britain's name.

III.

"And what," I said, "though Blasphemy's loud scream
 With that sweet music of deliverance strove ! [45
 Though all the fierce and drunken passions wove
 A dance more wild than e'er was maniac's dream !
 Ye storms, that round the dawning east assembled,
 The Sun was rising, though ye hid his light !"
 And when, to soothe my soul, that hoped and
 trembled,
 The dissonance ceased, and all seemed calm and
 bright ; 50
 When France her front deep-scarr'd and gory
 Concealed with clustering wreaths of glory ;
 When, insupportably advancing,
 Her arm made mockery of the warrior's tramp ;
 While timid looks of fury glancing, 55
 Domestic treason, crushed beneath her fatal stamp,
 Writhed like a wounded dragon in his gore ;
 Then I reproached my fears that would not flee ;
 "And soon," I said, "shall Wisdom teach her lore
 In the low huts of them that toil and groan ! 60
 And, conquering by her happiness alone,
 Shall France compel the nations to be free,
 Till Love and Joy look round, and call the Earth
 their own."

IV.

Forgive me, Freedom ! O forgive those dreams !
 I hear thy voice, I hear thy loud lament, 65
 From bleak Helvetia's icy cavern sent—
 I hear thy groans upon her blood-stained streams !
 Heroes, that for your peaceful country perished,
 And ye that, fleeing, spot your mountain snows [70
 With bleeding wounds ; forgive me, that I cherished
 One thought that ever blessed your cruel foes !
 To scatter rage, and traitorous guilt,
 Where peace her jealous home had built ;
 A patriot race to disinherit
 Of all that made their stormy wilds so dear ; 75
 And with inexpiable spirit
 To taint the bloodless freedom of the mountaineer—
 O France, that mockest Heaven, adulterous, blind,
 And patriot only in pernicious toils,
 Are these thy boasts, Champion of human kind ? 80
 To mix with Kings in the low lust of sway,
 Yell in the hunt, and share the murderous prey ;
 To insult the shrine of Liberty with spoils
 From freemen torn ; to tempt and to betray ?

V.

The Sensual and the Dark rebel in vain, 85
 Slaves by their own compulsion ! In mad game
 They burst their manacles and wear the name
 Of freedom, graven on a heavier chain !
 O Liberty ! with profitless endeavour
 Have I pursued thee, many a weary hour ; 90
 But thou nor swell'st the victor's strain, nor ever
 Didst breathe thy soul in forms of human power.
 Alike from all, howe'er they praise thee,
 (Nor prayer, nor boastful name delays thee)
 Alike from Priestcraft's harpy minions, 95
 And factious Blasphemy's obscener slaves,
 Thou speedest on thy subtle pinions,
 The guide of homeless winds, and playmate of the
 waves !
 And there I felt thee !—on that sea-cliff's verge [100
 Whose pines, scarce travelled by the breeze above,



Had made one murmur with the distant surge !
 Yes. while I stood and gazed, my temples bare,
 And shot my being through earth, sea and air,
 Possessing all things with intensest love,
 O Liberty ! my spirit felt thee there. 105

FEBRUARY, 1798.

TO WILLIAM WORDSWORTH.

(Composed on the night after his recitation of a Poem on the Growth of an Individual Mind.)

Friend of the wise ' and teacher of the good !
 Into my heart have I received that lay
 More than historic, that prophetic lay
 Wherein (high theme by thee first sung aright)
 Of the foundations and the building up 5
 Of a Human Spirit thou hast dared to tell
 What may be told, to the understanding mind
 Revealable ; and what within the mind
 By vital breathings secret as the soul
 Of vernal growth, oft quickens in the heart 10
 Thoughts all too deep for words !—

Theme hard as high
 Of smiles spontaneous, and mysterious fears,
 (The first-born they of Reason and twin-birth)
 Of tides obedient to external force, 15
 And currents self-determined, as might seem,
 Or by some inner power ; of moments awful,
 Now in thy inner life, and now abroad,
 When power streamed from thee, and thy soul received
 The light reflected, as a light bestowed — 20
 Of fancies fair, and milder hours of youth,
 Hyblean murmurs of poetic thought
 Industrious in its joy, in vales and glens
 Native our outland, lakes and famous hills !
 Or on the lonely high-road, when the stars 25
 Were rising ; or by secret mountain streams,
 The guides and the companions of thy way !

Of more than Fancy, of the Social Sense
 Distending wide, and man beloved as man,
 Where France in all her towns lay vibrating 30
 Like some becalmed bark beneath the burst
 Of Heaven's immediate thunder, when no cloud
 Is visible, or shadow on the main.
 For thou wert there, thine own brows garlanded,
 Amid the tremor of a realm aglow, 35
 Amid a mighty nation jubilant,
 When from the general heart of human kind
 Hope sprang forth like a full-born Deity !
 —Of that dear Hope afflicted and struck down, [40
 So summoned homeward, thenceforth calm and sure
 From the dread watch-tower of man's absolute self.
 With light unwaning on her eyes, to look
 Far on—herself a glory to behold,
 The Angel of the vision ! Then (last strain)
 Of Duty, chosen laws controlling choice, 45
 Action and joy !—An Orphic song indeed,
 A song divine of high and passionate thoughts
 To their own music chanted !

O great Bard !

Ere yet that last strain dying awed the air,
 With steadfast eye I viewed thee in the choir 50
 Of ever-enduring men. The truly great
 Have all one age, and from one visible space
 Shed influence ! They, both in power and act,
 Are permanent, and Time is not with them,
 Save as it worketh for them, they in it. 55
 Nor less a sacred roll, than those of old,
 And to be placed, as they, with gradual fame
 Among the archives of mankind, thy work
 Makes audible a linked lay of Truth,
 Of Truth profound a sweet continuous lay, 60
 Not learnt, but native, her own natural notes !
 Ah ! as I listened with a heart forlorn,
 The pulses of my being beat anew :
 And even as life returns upon the drowned,
 Life's joy rekindling roused a throng of pains— 65
 Keen pangs of Love, awakening as a babe
 Turbulent, with an outcry in the heart ;



And fears self-willed, that shunned the eye of hope ;
 And hope that scarce would know itself from fear ;
 Sense of past youth, and manhood come in vain, 70
 And genius given, and knowledge won in vain ;
 And all which I had culled in wood-walks wild,
 And all which patient toil had reared, and all
 Commune with thee had opened out—but flowers
 Strewed on my corse, and borne upon my bier, 75
 In the same coffin, for the self-same grave !

That way no more ! and ill beseems it me,
 Who came a welcomer in herald's guise,
 Singing of glory and futurity,
 To wander back on such unhealthful road, 80
 Plucking the poisons of self-harm ! And ill
 Such intertwine beseems triumphal wreaths
 Strewed before thy advancing !

Nor do thou,
 Sage bard ! impair the memory of that hour 85
 Of thy communion with my nobler mind
 By pity or grief, already felt too long !
 Nor let my words import more blame than needs.
 The tumult rose and ceased : for peace is nigh
 Where wisdom's voice has found a listening heart. 90
 Amid the howl of more than wintry storms,
 The halcyon hears the voice of vernal hours
 Already on the wing.

Five following eve, [95
 Dear tranquil time, when the sweet sense of Home
 Is sweetest ! moments for their own sake hailed
 And more desired, more precious for thy song,
 In silence listening, like a devout child,
 My soul lay passive, by thy various strain
 Driven as in surges now beneath the stars, 100
 With momentary stars of my own birth,
 Fair constellated foam,* still darting off

* "A beautiful white cloud of foam at momentary intervals coarsed by the side of the vessel with a roar, and little stars of flame danced and sparkled and went out in it ; and every now and then light detachments of this white cloud-like foam darted off from the vessel's side, each with its own small constellation, over the sea, and scoured out of sight like a Tartar troop over a wilderness."—*The Friend*, p. 220.

Into the darkness ; now a tranquil sea,
 Outspread and bright, yet swelling to the moon.

[105

And when—O Friend ! my comforter and guide !
 Strong in thyself, and powerful to give strength !—
 Thy long-sustained Song finally closed.
 And thy deep voice had ceased—yet thou thyself
 Wert still before my eyes, and round us both
 That happy vision of beloved faces— 110
 Scarce conscious, and yet conscious of its close
 I sate, my being blended in one thought
 (Thought was it ? or aspiration ? or resolve ?)
 Absorbed, yet hanging still upon the sound—
 And when I rose, I found myself in prayer. 115

DEJECTION.—AN ODE.

Late, late yestreen I saw the new Moon,
 With the old Moon in her arms :
 And I fear, I fear, my Master dear !
 We shall have a deadly storm.

Ballad of Sir Patrick Spence.

I.

Well ! If the Bard was weather-wise, who made
 The grand old ballad of Sir Patrick Spence,
 This night, so tranquil now, will not go hence
 Unroused by winds, that ply a busier trade
 Than those which mould yon cloud in lazy flakes, 5
 Or the dull sobbing draft, that moans and rakes
 Upon the strings of this Eolian lute,
 Which better far were mute.
 For lo ! the New-moon winter bright !
 And overspread with phantom light, 10
 (With swimming phantom light o'rspread
 But rimmed and circled by a silver thread)
 I see the old Moon in her lap, foretelling
 The coming on of rain and squally blast.
 And oh ! that even now the gust were swelling, 15
 And the slant night-shower driving loud and fast !



Those sounds which oft have raised me, whilst they
 awed,

And sent my soul abroad,
 Might now perhaps their wonted impulse give, [20
 Might startle this dull pain, and make it move and live !

II.

A grief without a pang, void, dark, and drear,

A stifled, drowsy, unimpassioned grief,

Which finds no natural outlet, no relief,

In word, or sigh, or tear—

O Lady ! in this wan and heartless mood, 25

To other thoughts by yonder throstle woo'd,

All this long eve, so balmy and serene,

Have I been gazing on the western sky,

And its peculiar tint of yellow green :

And still I gaze—and with how blank an eye ! 30

And those thin clouds above, in flakes and bars,

That give away their motion to the stars ;

Those stars, that glide behind them or between,

Now sparkling, now bedimmed, but always seen ;

Yon crescent Moon as fixed as if it grew 35

In its own cloudless, starless lake of blue ;

I see them all so excellently fair,

I see, not feel how beautiful they are !

III.

My genial spirits fail ;

And what can these avail 40

To lift the smothering weight from off my breast.

It were a vain endeavour,

Though I should gaze for ever

On that green light that lingers in the west :

I may not hope from outward forms to win 45

The passion and the life, whose fountains are within.

IV.

O Lady ! we receive but what we give,

And in our life alone does nature live :

Ours is her wedding-garment, ours her shroud !

And would we aught behold of higher worth, 50

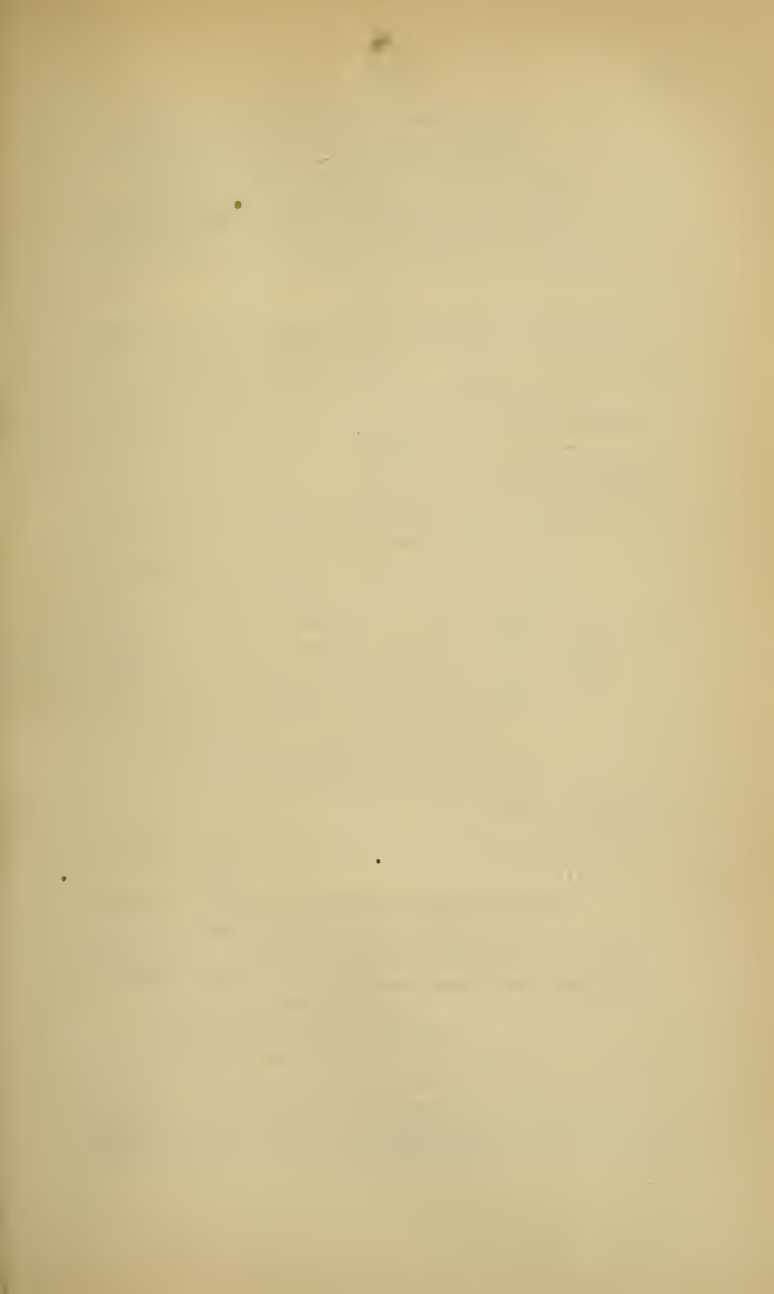
Than that inanimate cold world allowed
 To the poor loveless ever-anxious crowd,
 Ah ! from the soul itself must issue forth,
 A light, a glory, a fair luminous cloud
 Enveloping the Earth— 55
 And from the soul itself must there be sent
 A sweet and potent voice, of its own birth,
 Of all sweet sounds the life and element !

v.

O pure of heart ! thou need'st not ask of me
 What this strong music in the soul may be ! 60
 What, and wherein it doth exist,
 This light, this glory, this fair luminous mist,
 This beautiful and beauty-making power.
 Joy, virtuous Lady ! Joy that ne'er was given,
 Save to the pure, and in their purest hour, 65
 Life, and Life's effluence, cloud at once and shower.
 Joy, Lady ! is the spirit and the power,
 Which wedding Nature to us gives in dower,
 A new Earth and new Heaven,
 Undreamt of by the sensual and the proud— 70
 Joy is the sweet voice, Joy the luminous cloud—
 We in ourselves rejoice !
 And thence flows all that charms or ear or sight,
 All melodies the echoes of that voice,
 All colours a suffusion from that light. 75

vi.

There was a time when, though my path was rough,
 This joy within me dallied with distress,
 And all misfortunes were but as the stuff
 Whence Fancy made me dreams of happiness :
 For Hope grew round me, like the twining vine, 80
 And fruits, and foliage, not my own, seemed mine.
 But now afflictions bow me down to earth :
 Nor care I that they rob me of my mirth,
 But oh ! each visitation
 Suspends what nature gave me at my birth, 85
 My shaping spirit of Imagination.
 For not to think of what I needs must feel,



But to be still and patient, all I can ;
 And haply by abstruse research to steal
 From my own nature all the natural man— 90
 This was my sole resource, my only plan :
 Till that which suits a part infects the whole,
 And now is almost grown the habit of my soul.

VII.

Hence, viper thoughts, that coil around my mind,
 Reality's dark dream ! 95
 I turn from you, and listen to the wind,
 Which long has raved unnoticed. What a scream
 Of agony by torture lengthened out
 That lute sent forth ! Thou Wind, that ravest without,
 Bare craig, or mountain-tairn,* or blasted tree, 100
 Or pine-grove whither woodman never clomb,
 Or lonely house, long held the witches' home,
 Methinks were fitter instruments for thee,
 Mad Lutanist ! who in this month of showers,
 Of dark brown gardens, and of peeping flowers, 105
 Mak'st Devils' yule, with worse than wintry song,
 The blossoms, buds, and timorous leaves among.
 Thou Actor, perfect in all tragic sounds !
 Thou mighty Poet, e'en to frenzy bold !
 What tell'st thou now about ? 110
 'Tis of the rushing of a host in rout,
 With groans of trampled men, with smarting
 wounds—
 At once they groan with pain, and shudder with the
 cold !
 But hush ! there is a pause of deepest silence !
 And all that noise, as of a rushing crowd, 115
 With groans, and tremulous shudderings—all is over—
 It tells another tale, with sounds less deep and loud !
 A tale of less affright,
 And tempered with delight.
 As Otway's self had framed the tender lay, 120

* Tairn is a small lake, generally if not always applied to the lakes up in the mountains, and which are the feeders of those in the valleys. This address to the Storm-wind will not appear extravagant to those who have heard it at night, and in a mountainous country.

'Tis of a little child
 Upon a lonesome wild,
 Not far from home, but she hath lost her way ;
 And now moans low in bitter grief and fear,
 And now screams loud, and hopes to make her mother
 hear. 125

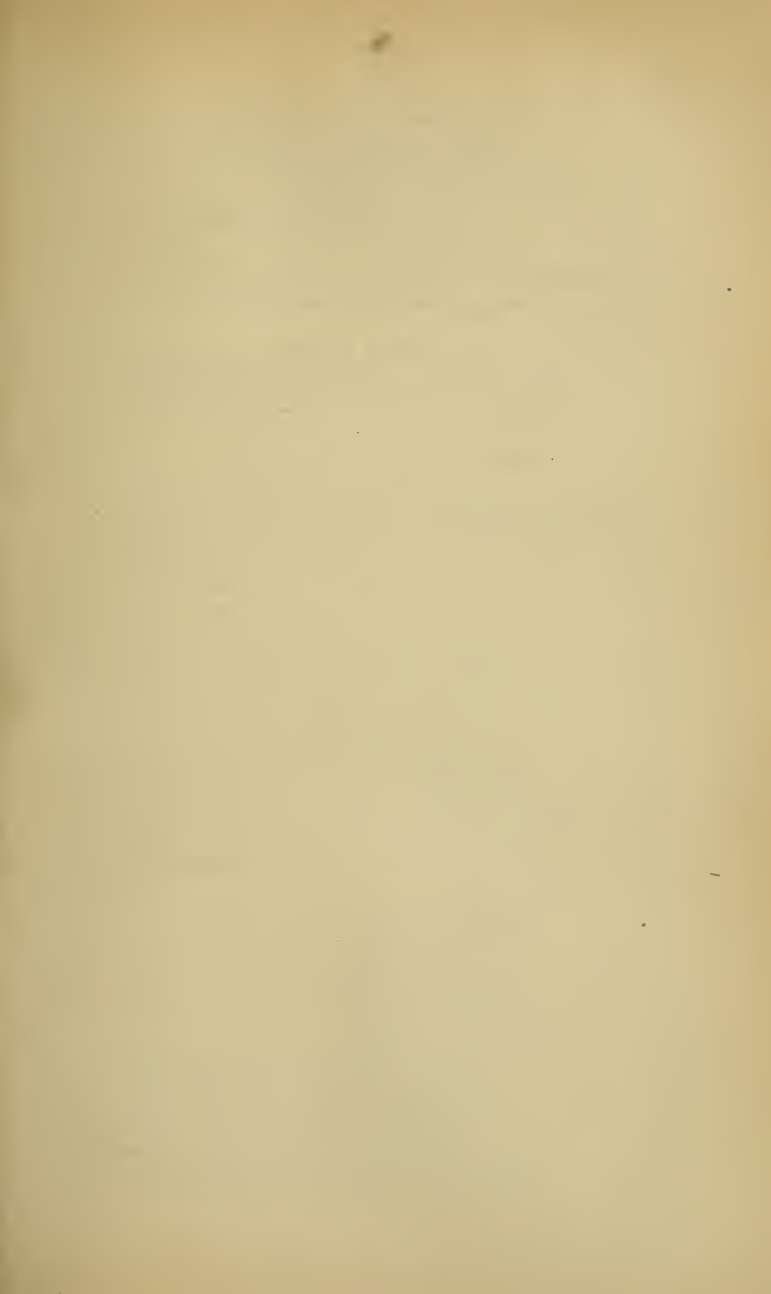
VIII.

'Tis midnight, but small thoughts have I of sleep :
 Full seldom may my friend such vigils keep !
 Visit her, gentle Sleep ! with wings of healing,
 And may this storm be but a mountain-birth.
 May all the stars hang bright above her dwelling, 130
 Silent as though they watched the sleeping Earth !
 With light heart may she rise,
 Gay fancy, cheerful eyes,
 Joy lift her spirit, joy attune her voice ;
 To her may all things live, from pole to pole, 135
 Their life the eddying of her living soul !
 O simple spirit, guided from above,
 Dear Lady ! friend devoutest of my choice,
 Thus mayest thou ever, evermore rejoice.

 YOUTH AND AGE.*

Verse, a breeze mid blossoms straying,
 Where Hope clung feeding, like a bee—
 Both were mine ! Life went a maying
 With Nature, Hope, and Poesy,
 When I was young !
 When I was young ?—Ah, woful when !
 Ah ! for the change 'twixt Now and Then !
 This breathing house not built with hands,
 This body that does me grievous wrong,

* With respect to the date of the admired composition, "Youth and Age," memories and opinions differ. It is the impression of the writer of this note that the first stanza, from "Verse, a breeze," to "liv'd in't together," was produced as late as 1824, and that it was subsequently prefixed to the second stanza, "Flowers are lovely," which is said to have been composed many years before. It appears, from the Author's own statement, already quoted, that the last verse was not added till 1827, to which period the poem, considered as a whole, may very well be assigned.



O'er aery cliffs and glittering sands, 10
 How lightly then it flashed along :—
 Like those trim skiffs, unknown of yore,
 On winding lakes and rivers wide,
 That ask no aid of sail or oar,
 'That fear no spite of wind or tide ! 15
 Nought cared this body for wind or weather
 When Youth and I liv'd in't together.

Flowers are lovely ; Love is flower-like ;
 Friendship is a sheltering tree ;
 O ! the joys that came down shower-like, 20
 Of Friendship, Love, and Liberty,
 Ere I was old.
 Ere I was old ?—Ah, woful Ere,
 Which tells me, Youth's no longer here !
 O Youth ! for years so many and sweet, 25
 'Tis known, that Thou and I were one,
 I'll think it but a fond conceit—
 It cannot be that thou art gone !
 Thy vesper-bell hath not yet toll'd :—
 And thou wert aye a masker bold ! 30
 What strange disguise hast now put on,
 To make believe that thou art gone ?
 I see these locks in silvery slips,
 This drooping gait, this altered size :
 But springtide blossoms on thy lips, 35
 And tears take sunshine from thine eyes !
 Life is but thought : so think I will
 That Youth and I are house-mates still.

Dew-drops are the gems of morning,
 But the tears of mournful eve ! 40
 Where no hope is, life's a warning
 That only serves to make us grieve,
 When we are old :
 That only serves to make us grieve
 With oft and tedious taking-leave, 45
 Like some poor nigh-related guest,
 That may not rudely be dismiss ;
 Yet hath outstay'd his welcome while,
 And tells the jest without the smile.

NOTES.

ODE TO THE DEPARTING YEAR.

COLERIDGE's strong sympathy with the French Revolution was shewn before the writing of this ode (in the last days of 1796) in his "Religious Musings," written in 1794, in his "Conciones ad Populum," a course of lectures which denounced Pitt and the war with France in the strongest terms, and in the *Watchman*, a periodical published every eighth day, but soon discontinued.

The year 1796 had been marked by varying success in the great struggle between the French Republic and its enemies.

On the one hand Bonaparte's brilliant victories at Montenotte, Lodi, Arcola, &c., had shattered Austria's power in Italy; and General Hoche had finally suppressed the Royalist rising in La Vendée, shewing there a humanity that not only contrasted strongly with the savagery of his predecessors, but might well raise hopes of the dawning on France of a new era. On the other hand the French commanders in Germany had been baffled by the skill of the Archduke Charles.

The ode is a grand conception expressed in language of uniform dignity and often of great beauty.

The terms "strophe" and "anti-strophe" used in the Argument refer to divisions of the Greek choral odes, the anti-strophe being sung while the chorus circled round the altar in the contrary direction to that observed while singing the strophé, the epode being sung while standing still. The rule that the anti-strophe should have the same metrical structure as the strophe is here observed only in stanza IV., which answers to I.

Three kinds of metre occur in this and the next ode:—
Iambic, as "Thy dárk | inwó | ven hár | moníes | to héar;"
Trochaic, as "Stárting | fróm my | sécret | sádness;"
Anapaestic, as "At cow' | ardly dí's | tance yet kínd | ling with pride."
Iambic lines admit other feet than Iamb, e. g.,
"Spírit | who sweép | est," &c.

I.

1—*Spirit*, "the Divine Providence that regulates into one vast harmony all the events of time." This invocation contains a sublime metaphor.

3—*Harmonies*, well expresses the manner in which the various series of contemporaneous and apparently conflicting events blend into one grand result as do the various parts in music.

Intwoven, complicated, like the harmonies of some difficult work of one of the grand composers. *Dark*, hard to understand.

4—*Mine eye fixed*, &c. His mind gaining from meditation on the unchangeableness of the Divine purposes, power calmly to view the perplexing and often disheartening course of human events.

5—*Mortal*, natural to a mortal when contemplating such themes.

9—*Sadness*, at the slow progress of what he deemed the cause of Freedom.

10—*No unholy madness*, litotes for holy enthusiasm. *Madness*, the frenzy supposed to be brought on by poetic or prophetic inspiration. Compare Virgil's description of the Sibyl —

"But, yet resisting Phœbus, in her cave
The awful prophetess infuriate strives
To shake from off her breast the mighty god ;
So much the more he tires her raving mouth,
Tames her wild heart, and trains with strong control."—Kennedy.

11—*Entered*, "that I had entered." *Foreclosed*, shut out, the primary meaning of the word, which is the old French *forclos*, from *foris*, outside, and *clausus*, shut.

II.

13—*Recent*, new made.

14—*Direr* than the tomb, as had been the Bastile, and still were many in Russia, &c.

15—*Distemper*, disease ; properly a "wrong mixture" of the bodily "humors," this being according to the ancient physicians the cause of disease.

16—*Thence where*, strictly speaking, a more correct expression than the common "from where." So,

"There where a few torn shrubs the place disclose."

17—*Two bright torches*. Eros, the Greek god of love, is sometimes pictured as carrying more than one torch.

18—*Love illumines manhood's maze*. Gives man at once a steady object and a hope in the perplexities of life. "The best way to bring a clever young man who has become sceptical and unsettled to reason, is to make him *feel* something in any way. Love, if sincere and unworldly, will bring him to a sense of something real and actual."—*Table Talk*.

20—*Hope*, the most natural feeling in a parent gazing on his young children.

Perplexed, confused.

27—*Bower*, chamber, as in Chaucer's

"Full sooty was her bour (bedroom) and eek her halle."

The poet summons all to turn from private joys and griefs to the cause of Mankind. The enumeration awakens our sympathies.

31—*Portentous birth*, the production of a state of things ominous to existing institutions. For the sake of impressiveness this is attributed to nature, not to society. A *portent* was an omen, generally a threatening one.

32—*Weep and rejoice*, over the sufferings of the existing struggle and the benefits that were to follow.

33—*The dread name*, of Pitt, whom Coleridge regarded as the stirrer up of the European monarchs against France. Thus in "Fire, Famine and Slaughter," Fire says,

"Letters four do form his name."

And again,

"Ninety months he by my troth
Has richly catered for you both."

36—*Justice and truth* were to be promoted by the triumph of *Liberty, i. e.*, of the French Republic. But see the following ode.

40—*Conqueress*, Catherine of Russia, the "Semiramis of the North." A native of Upper Saxony, she dethroned, in 1763, her husband, the Czar Peter, who was brutally strangled by her accomplice, Count Orloff. She seized the Crimea, and was the chief mover in the infamous partitions of Poland. Her sudden death before she could send effectual aid to the allied sovereigns had a great influence on the event of the war.

42—*Mailed Monarch*, the Emperor Francis, the head of the coalition against the Revolution. *Mailed*, in warlike guise. These sovereigns Coleridge denounces in the *Religious Musings* as

"That foul woman of the North,
The lustful murderess of her wedded lord !
And he connatural mind ! whom * * *
Some Fury fondled in her hate to man."

43—*Stunned*, attributive of "hag," *i. e.*, Catherine, "insatiate" of conquest and slaughter.

Mice, more appropriate than the conventional "dart," as implying a crushing blow.

Twice mortal. See Revelation xxi., 8.

45—*Murder's lurid face*. The ghastly faces of those murdered to glut her ambition—her husband, and also the Poles slain in the struggle of 1793-4.

46—*Manes*, the Latin word for spirits ; pronounced *mānēs*.

47—*Warsaw's plain*, in the storming of Praga, a suburb of Warsaw, on the 4th November, 1794, when ten thousand soldiers fell, and twelve thousand peaceful citizens of both sexes were massacred.

48—*Ismail*, a Turkish fortress stormed by Suwaroff in 1790, when a general massacre of its people took place. Hence the epithet, "exterminating fiend," l. 55.

49—*Human ruin*. Heaps of human corpses.

"Of forty thousand that had mann'd the wall,
Some hundreds breath'd."

54—*Misty train*, shadowy troops.

57—*Foul her life*. Her example encouraged systematic immorality. *Death-fires*. See note on the Ancient Mariner, line 128.

IV.

64—*Cloudy throne*. "Clouds and darkness are about him." Psalm xcvi., 2.

65—*Memory sits*. The remembrance of men's deeds is ever present.

67—*Storied'st*, relatedst the sad events of 1796.

71—*Choired gods*, godlike angels, assembled in their choirs.

72—*Spirit of the Earth*, a fine personification (see lines 80-102) of the prayers of the oppressed calling for Divine intervention. Contrast with "Ambition" (l. 38) which has little personality.

V.

75—*Hush'd*, not hush't.

76—*Lampads seven*, properly the golden candlesticks; but here the reference is to the "Seven Lamps" in Revelation iv., 5.

84—*Proffered insult* refers to the interference of Austria and Russia in the internal affairs of France, and in particular, perhaps, to the Duke of Brunswick's insolent proclamation in 1792, which said that anarchy had "annihilated the political existence of France."

85—*Masked hate*, probably referring to Pitt's reluctance to begin a war, which reluctance Coleridge then misjudged.

88—*Afric's wrongs*. The slave trade was then legal, and continued so till 1807.

91—*Deaf Synod*, Parliament, which he deemed "deaf" to the voice of justice and mercy.

Gifts, bribes.

94—*Thankless*, for the blessings described in stanza VII.

95—*Her quiver full*. Absolute phrase. The "quiver" is appropriate to a country which had won so many victories by the valor of her archers.

97—*Dark'ing*, properly an adverb, in the dark, as in Milton's "The wakeful bird sings darkling."

101—Cf., "The whole creation groaneth."

VI.

106—*Phantom*, the vision and especially the apparition of the Earth Spirit calling for vengeance.

115—*Foredone*, exhausted ; should be written *fordone* cf.,

“If either salves, or oyles, or herbes, or charms
A fardonne wight from dore of death mote raise.”—*Spenser*.

Fore, or rather *for*, means completely, as in *forlorn*, and the obsolete *forbled*, *forpined*.

119-20—This picture of the soldier's disturbed sleep among the slain forms a striking conclusion to the vision.

VII.

121—*Not yet enslaved*. The first edition had :—

“O doomed to fall, enslaved and vile,”

which is more in keeping with the rest of the ode than is the present reading, substituted when the poet's views had changed.

123, &c.—This is perhaps the finest description of England in existence. It is instructive to observe how much more natural and at the same time more picturesque is its language than that even of Goldsmith's fine lines :—

“Where Britain courts the western spring ;
Where lawns extend that scorn Arcadian pride,
And brighter streams than famed Hydaspes glide.
There all around the gentlest breezes stray,
There gentlest music melts on every spray.”

The contrast between these two passages well illustrates one of the main differences between the poets of the “school of Pope” and those of the present century.

131—*Hence*, from the ocean's protection. *Fearless*, free from alarm.

The peaceful beauty of this stanza heightens the effect of the indignant outburst that follows.

VIII.

136—*At cowardly distance*, engaging in a contest in which, owing to her insular position, she incurred little risk. Coleridge did not then see that the seizure of Holland had forced war upon England. *Secure* probably has its primitive sense, “careless.”

Strange-eyed. Coleridge, in revising his poems, “pruned the double epithets with no sparing hand,” but left this and “young-eyed joys.”

142—*Central fires*. The meaning is that England was about to undergo a convulsion like that which the outburst of the earth's central fire would produce in the physical world, a convulsion that would startle even the Spirit of Destruction, described in the *Religious Musings* as

“The old Hag, unconquerable, huge,
Creation's eyeless drudge.”

The “perilous couch” by “red volcanic stream” heightens the impressive picture, while the rhythm of line 142 is an “echo to the sense.”

145—*Dragon-eyes*, like those of a serpent.

Leap, perhaps with joy.

IX.

150—*Birds of warning.* The ancients believe that the notes of certain birds indicate Divine displeasure. Their singing “in vain” implies that England will not take warning; and her ruin is so near that already the “brood of prey” are flying towards the feast she is to supply.

151—*Famished*, by England’s long exemption from invasion. This epithet as well as groaning (*i. e.*, burdened) wind is intended to heighten the feeling of horror.

154—*The evil thing.* The war with France, which Coleridge then regarded as one against liberty and humanity.

156—*Soliciting.* This is of course a fancy touch. Coleridge never lived by agriculture, though he had expected to do so in the Pantisocratic colony of Susquehanna, which plan he still perhaps cherished.

159—*Sabbath*, rest, the primary meaning of the word.

161—*God’s image*, &c., the human soul. The thought is a fitting conclusion to this noble ode.

FRANCE.

COLERIDGE’S revolutionary ardor cooled during the year 1797. In later years he said of the Revolution, “It had all my wishes, none of my expectations.” Being “in religion,” as he says himself, “at the opposite pole” from the Jacobins, he must have seen with displeasure the violence by which they regained power in 1797, and the shameless plundering of Italy by its “Liberators.” What thoroughly opened his eyes, however, was the wanton attack upon the sister Republic of Switzerland in December, the objects and results of which are anticipated in the present ode. Coleridge, though an anti-Jacobin, continued an opponent of Mr. Pitt and of the war.

This ode, though it has its own peculiar beauties, necessarily falls behind its predecessor in vigor, for it is in the main defensive, though the *Morning Post* went quite too far in styling it a “Recantation.” Compare lines 27, *seqq.*

Shelley called it the finest ode in the language, influenced, perhaps as Mr. Traill suggests, by the melody which characterizes it as well as nearly all Coleridge’s poetry, and rises to its height in “Christabel.”

I.

1—*Clouds.* Why these are thus apostrophized will appear from the last stanza.

4—*Homage to eternal laws*, the essence of true liberty, as opposed to license.

6—*Midway*, used here as a preposition. *Perilous slope*, the steep side of some mountain.

7—*Imperious*, exercising command (Lat. imperium) over the wind, so as to convert it into solemn music.

9—Probably equivalent to “inspire.”

11—*Fancies holy*, such as those embodied in his *Religious Musings*.

13—*Beyond the guess of folly*, beyond what fools can conceive, especially the numerous class of fools that deery everything higher than money-making.

18—*Will*, emphatic, “is determined.”

20—*Still*, always.

II.

22—*Her giant limbs*. A fine description of the uprising of France at the Revolution. Note the force given here, as well as in the first stanza, by the personification.

27—*A slavish band*. So he calls the opponents of the Revolution, except, of course, Burke.

29—*Like fiends*. A powerful simile; showing, too, that Coleridge did not retract his denunciation of their conduct.

30—*The Monarchs*, of Austria, Prussia, Spain and Sardinia.

In evil day, for themselves, who were defeated; for France, which suffered from the Reign of Terror to which their interference contributed.

33—*Friendships*, especially with Charles Lamb, and later with Southey.

Patriot (i. e., patriotic) *emotion* is like Goldsmith’s “patriot passion.”

37—*Tyrant-quelling lance*, the power of France.

38—*Shame*, object of *sang*. *Vain*, since they were followed into their own possessions.

39—*Partial*, turned aside by private feeling.

41—*Pæans*. Hymns, properly in honor of Apollo, sung by the Greeks before battles and after victories. Hence “songs of victory.”

III.

43—*What*, supply “matters it.” *Blasphemy*, as of Klotz, Hébert, the apostate Bishop Gohet, and other Atheists, and the orgies in honor of the “Goddess of Reason.”

45—*Wove*, devised; the complicated movements of the dance being aptly compared to the pattern of some variegated tissue. The reference is, of course, to the horrors of the Reign of Terror.

47—*Ye storms*, &c. We have here a fine example of poetic argument, which is not an ordinary argument in metre, as often in Pope; but a striking illustration put more tersely and forcibly than would be possible in prose. *That*, preferred in verse to the harsh-sounding *which*.

50—*The dissonance*, the discord between joy at the recovery of liberty and the fury of the Terrorists.

Ceased, at the downfall of Robespierre, when ten thousand political prisoners were set free in Paris alone.

51—*Her front*, &c., well nigh obliterated the traces of civil strife, as in La Vendé, at Lyons, and at Toulon, by her brilliant victories abroad.

53—*Insupportably* (irresistibly) *advancing*. A phrase borrowed from *Samson Agonistes*:

“When insupportably his foot advanced
In spite of their proud arms and warlike tools
Spurred them to death by troops.”

It is, however, absurd to ground a charge of plagiarism on this imitation, for happy phrases become the property of the language and of all who use it.

62—By shewing in her happiness the benefits of freedom.

63—Compare,

“Return pure Faith! return meek Piety!
The kingdoms of the world are yours.”—*Religious Musings*.

IV.

64—Why *those*, not *these*?

66—*Helvetia*, Switzerland. The ancient Helvetii possessed the greater part of the modern Switzerland.

78—*Perished*. As yet but little blood had been shed; but in March fierce conflicts took place at Frauenbrunne, Graholtz, and Berne, where “the Swiss peasants, though defeated, faced about with the utmost resolution. . . . The place of the dead and the wounded was instantly supplied by crowds of every age and sex.” Other conflicts followed at Morgarten and in the Valais.

72—*To scatter—to disinherit*—are in a sort of apposition to “these” in line 80.

Traitorous guilt, as of Ochs and other chiefs of the Democratic faction, who had invited French intervention to establish their pet form of Government, which Ochs described as “the only means of rendering Switzerland the permanent ally of France.”

75—What made their stormy wilds so dear? See the “Traveller,” lines 175-8.

76—*Inexpiable*, &c., to mingle with the pure liberty of the Swiss a taint of corruption and violence that cannot be purged out. *Inexpiable* is properly that cannot be atoned for (from *piare*, to atone).

78—*Adulterous*, forsaking its allegiance to God. Cf. James, iv., 4.

80—*Champion*, self-styled. The French Convention declared that it would “grant fraternity and assistance to all people who wish to recover their liberty.”

81—*Low lust of sway*. A happy phrase. Why “low?”

82—*Murderous prey*. Plunder obtained by murder. The poet correctly divined the motive of the invasion. Bonaparte, the secret mover of these villainies, had, while passing through Berne, “asked a question of sinister import as to the amount of its treasure”; and the plunder of that Canton alone in 1798 amounted to 40,000,000 francs. Moreover, 40,000 French soldiers lived for months at free quarters, paid and maintained by the unfortunate Swiss.

83—Their robbing a free people was an insult to the cause of liberty. The ancients dedicated their spoils in the shrines of their gods.

85—*Dark*, unenlightened. In the *Watchman* Coleridge had asserted—to the disgust of many of his readers—that the only hope for liberty lay in the precepts of the Gospel and in popular education.

86—*Their own compulsion*, not by external force, as other slaves, but from the baseness of their own nature. Compare Cowper’s lines :—

“He is the freeman whom the Truth makes free,” &c.—*Task*, B. V., 733.

88—*A heavier chain*. Their excesses only make them more hopeless slaves, their freedom being a mere name. Note how forcibly and briefly the thought is presented here as also in ll. 47-8.

94—In other words liberty will not abide among men. *Delays*, causes to remain, detains.

95—*Priestcraft*. At this time Coleridge’s unorthodox notions and sympathy with the Revolution had alienated him from the established clergy of England as well as of foreign countries.

Harpy. The Harpies, literally “Snatchers,” were fabulous beings described by some Greek and Latin poets as disgusting monsters, being birds with heads of maidens, pale with hunger and armed with long claws. Sent to torment one Phineus, they either carried away his food or rendered it uneatable. The word here means *greedy*.

Minions, favorites, generally used in a bad sense.

The conclusion is by some deemed unsatisfactory ; but it is hard to see what other there could be. An ardent but disappointed lover of liberty, the poet was forced to seek it in inanimate Nature. Note the sublimity of the closing picture.

TO WILLIAM WORDSWORTH.

This poem, written in 1806, not in strictness an ode, is a touching memorial of the friendship between the two greatest poets of this century—a friendship which brought out the best points in each, and to which we owe the “Ancient Mariner.” A most pleasing trait of Coleridge’s character is the freedom

from jealousy shown by his strong admiration of his great rival, which produced not only this poem, but also that masterpiece of criticism, the dissertation on Wordsworth's poetry contained in chapters xvi.-xxii. of the "Biographia Literaria," itself intended to trace the development of Coleridge's "individual mind."

The poem referred to is the "Prelude" (*i. e.*, to the "Excursion"), addressed to Coleridge, and at one time deemed by him superior even to the "Excursion." In his "Table Talk" he adds:—"I think Wordsworth possessed more of the genius of a great philosophic poet than any man I ever knew, or, as I believe, that has existed in England since Milton." And again, "He will wear the crown while English is English."

The sad tone of the references to Coleridge himself is, no doubt, owing to the habit of opium-eating which blighted his life.

1—This praise has been justified by the illustrious men who have been admirers of Wordsworth.

2—*That lay*. Of it Wordsworth says:—"When the author retired to his native mountains with the hope of being enabled to construct a literary work that might live, it was a reasonable thing that he should take a review of his own mind and examine how far Nature and Education had qualified him for such employment. As subsidiary to this preparation he undertook to record in verse the origin and progress of his own powers." He adds that it formed, as it were, an ante-chapel to the main work.

3—*Prophetic*, as indicating Wordsworth's future achievements from the view it gave of his mental history.

10—*Vernal growth*. The growth of plants in spring is well put forward as the type of imperceptible progress.

Quickens, gives life to Cf., "Thoughts that do often lie too deep for tears."

13—*Smiles spontaneous . . . fears*, of infancy.

14—*Tides and currents*, respectively denote thoughts awakened by external things, and the independent action of the mind itself. Before "by . . . power" supply *determined*.

16—*Aweful*, momentous, and therefore awe-inspiring.

19—*Reflected*, from nature, proceeding in the first-place from his own mind and mistaken for a light bestowed by external Nature. So in the "Prelude,"

"An auxilial light
Came from my mind, which on the setting sun
Bestowed new splendor."

This thought is grandly wrought out in lines 47-58 of the Ode to Dejection.

21—*Hyblæan murmurs*. The working of poetic thought, gentle yet full of activity, is compared to the hum of bees,

Hybla being a place in Sicily (uncertain which of three) famed for its honey.

23—*Vales* and *glens*. "Glen" denotes a wilder hollow than "vale," the Celtic word being appropriate to this feature of mountain scenery. *Native*. The burden of the "Prelude" is the effect on the poet's mind of the scenery of the lake country, "The Paradise where I was reared," and the Alps.

25—*Secret*, secluded; like

"The secret top
Of Oreb or of Sinai."

28—*Social sense*. The faculty which made him take interest in social movements, especially the French Revolution.

29—*Distending*, constantly growing wider, a sense which "extending," which is the more obvious term, would not well bear.

30—*France*, &c. This simile graphically describes the agitated state of France at the time of the suspension of the King from office, and the calling of the National Convention after the storming of the Tuilleries on the 10th August, 1792, an event as unexpected as thunder from a clear sky.

33—*Thine own brows*, as well as those of the French. Wordsworth so strongly approved of the Revolution that he thought of settling in France.

37—*The general heart*. The Revolution had many sympathizers in all countries, not only the young and ardent, but also statesmen like Fox.

38—*Hope*, of an age of universal brotherhood.

"Bliss was it on that dawn to be alive,
But to be young was very Heaven."

"The whole earth
The beauty wore of promise."

39—*Struck down*, by the horrors of the Reign of Terror, and by Napoleon's despotism. *Summoned homeward*, forced to confine itself to thoughts of self-improvement.

41—*Man's absolute self*, human nature considered in itself, apart from all political schemes.

The Angel, probably the allusion is to those that talked with St. John in the Revelation.

45—*Chosen*, by the will, and thence forward ruling it in both "action" and the pursuit of "joy."

46—*Orphic*, philosophic and mystical.

At the dawn of Greek philosophy certain societies strove by mystic rites and holy living to attain moral purification and life after death. They were called Orphic, from Orpheus, a poet of whom it was fabled that he had, while alive, visited Hades. There were also poems on kindred subjects, commonly called Orphic, of which only fragments survive. Hence a poem deal-

ing with philosophical or theological subjects may be called Orphic. Compare,

"Some philosophic song
Of truth that cherishes our daily life.
* * * immortal verse,
Thoughtfully fitted to the Orphean lyre."

49—*Awed the air*,
The poet's feelings being, as usual, attributed to external things.

50-1—*Viewed*, &c. He anticipated the time when Wordsworth would be ranked with the greatest geniuses the world has produced.

52—*Have all one age*, are, as it were, contemporaries, as their works, being immortal, exercise influence simultaneously.

53—*Shed influence*. An expression borrowed from astrology, which conceived the stars to be sources whence streams of power flowed upon (*influre*, to flow into) men. Compare, "The sweet influences of the Pleiades."

54—*Is not with them*. Is as nothing to them; does not exist as far as they are concerned.

56—*Sacred roll*, as of the Scriptures or lists of prophets and priests of old.

Those, the great men.

57—*Gradual*, steadily increasing, no mushroom growth of popularity. A true prophecy.

Archives, properly what belongs to the Government, hence official records.

Linked. Explained in the succeeding line by "continuous." Cf. Milton's

"Linked sweetness long drawn out."

64—*The drowned*, who feel great pain while returning to life. It would seem that Coleridge's sudden cessation of poetic effort was partly caused by his applying himself to critical and philosophical pursuits in order to deaden the keenness with which he felt certain evils. See Dejection, ll. 87-91.

70—*In vain*. Coleridge was sadly conscious how little he had effected considering his magnificent intellect and his vast erudition. In later years he took a more cheerful view of his achievements, and in the last lines of "Biographia Literaria," chap. x., he virtually retracts this lament.

76—*Self-same grave*, as if what works he had produced would not long survive him. So Swift says of himself:—

"Departed, and his works must follow."

77—"That way," let my thoughts travel "*no more*."

80—*Unhealthful road*. The history of his past life.

81—*Poisons of self-harm*. Either harming himself by so painful a retrospect, or calling to mind how he had injured himself.

86—*Nobler mind*. The nobler and better part of his mind. Coleridge insisted much on the distinction between the "reason" and the lower faculty, the "understanding."

91—*More than wintry.* More furious.

92—*Halcyon*, the kingfisher, fabled of old to hatch its eggs in or close to the sea, a calm prevailing during the time of the process. The halcyon is here an emblem of assured hope.

95—*Eve following eve*; for the “Prelude” is a long poem.

98—Scanned, “My sóul | lay lís | t’ning líke | a dé | vout child,” *devout* having to be accented on the first syllable.

100—*Surges*, as the ocean is driven along by the wind.

102—*Foam*. With the foot-note compare Darwin’s description of a similar scene:—“Every part of the surface which during the day is seen as foam, now glowed with a pale light. The vessel drove before her bows two billows of liquid phosphorus, and in her wake she was followed by a milky train. As far as the eye could reach, the crest of every wave was bright.”

105—*Swelling*, drawn peacefully by Wordsworth’s genius, as is the ocean by the moon.

106—*Strong*. Wordsworth’s manly sturdiness formed a strong contrast to Coleridge’s irresolute character.

Comforter, strengthener.

107—Scan, “Thy lóng | sustáin | ěd sóng | final | ly closed.”

115—A fine conclusion, and natural to Coleridge’s devout temper, which, in spite of his weakness of character, gives a dignity to almost all his works.

ODE TO DEJECTION.

This ode was written on the 4th of April, 1802. Its sad and despairing tone was owing to the depression caused by ill health, and perhaps intensified by the use of opium, to which about this time Coleridge became enslaved.

It is worthy of note that in this ode we learn what caused Coleridge to turn from poetry to metaphysics, namely, that each visitation of pain, whether bodily or mental, “suspended his shaping spirit of imagination,” and that to find relief and to avoid exciting his sensibilities, which were now a source of pain only, he had begun devoting himself to “abstruse research,” which had now “almost grown the habit” of his mind.

I.

2—*Sir Patrick Spence*.

A Scottish * ballad by an unknown author, which relates how Sir Patrick Spence, sent by the King to bring over the King of Norway’s daughter, was shipwrecked on his way home. The passage reads:—

“O say no sae, my master deir,
For I feir a deadlie storm;
Late, late yestreen I saw the new moone
Wi’ the auld moone in her arme.”

* Of late its antiquity has been denied.

6—*Rakes*, scrapes.

7—*Eolian lute*, from Æolus, the god of the winds, an instrument which is played by the wind.

8—So as not to recall the happiness he enjoyed when he wrote the *Eolian Harp*.

9—*Winter bright*. Bright as in winter, the poem being written in April.

19—*Sent abroad*, not turning on his own troubles.

II.

21—*A grief without a pang*, uniformly oppressing to the mind; without any special paroxysm. *Heartless*, despairing, having lost heart.

26—*Throstle*, the thrush, a poetic word. It invited him to more cheerful thoughts.

30—Why “——”? See line 38.

32—*Give away*. Make the stars seem to move while they themselves appear to stand still.

38—*Not feel*, derive no pleasure from their beauty.

III.

39—*Genial*, cheerful.

40—*These*—the moon and other natural objects so beautifully described above.

46—*Whose fountains are within*. This thought, amplified in the next stanza, is the reverse of what Wordsworth generally inculcates. See, for example, the speech beginning

“I have seen
A curious child,”

near the end of book IV. of the “Excursion.” Wordsworth would never have spoken of the universe as “inanimate.”

IV.

47—*Receive*. Nature can show us only what our own minds infer from her appearances.

48—*Ours . . . shroud*. That is, nature seems joyous or gloomy according to the mood in which we ourselves are.

50—*Would we*, if we wish.

51—*Poor . . . crowd*. Those intent only on material prosperity and enjoyment.

57—*Life and element*, appositives to “voice.” “Element” is probably used in its old sense, the air that it breathes.

V.

60—The answer begins in line 64. It is in effect that all the beauty of the universe is appreciated only when the mind is tranquil and joyous.

64—*Joy*. Peace of mind.

Effluence, outflow. *Cloud* and *shower*, that is, both cause and effect in one ; which prompts to virtuous life, and in turn is enhanced by it.

68—*Wedding*, i. e., which Nature when wedding us bestows on us as a dower.

69—*A new earth*, a power that makes the earth seem unlike what it does to others ; or makes it seem like the new earth that St. John saw in his vision.

72—*In ourselves*, happiness is an inward principle.

75—*Suffusion*, literally a pouring beneath, a gentle hue ; here an emanation.

VI.

76—*A time*. The time of his poetical activity, from 1794 to 1798.

Dallied with, trifled with, made light of.

81—*Not my own*. Successes which he never attained seemed then certain.

86—*Shaping*, creative, the old meaning of the word. The O. E. word for *Creator* was *scyppend*, lit. “the shaper.” The phrase *shaping spirit* forms a brief but exact definition of imagination.

87—*Not to think of*, and thereby increase the sorrows, real or as it would seem, partly imaginary, that he could not escape.

90—*The natural man*. To repress his natural disposition.

Part. His reasoning power.

VII.

95—*Reality's dark dream*, a reality dark and strange enough to be a hideous dream.

96—*Wind*. What he had wished for comes and diverts his melancholy thoughts.

99—*Lute*. See line 7.

100—*Tairn*, usually *tarn* ; see the foot-note.

102—*Were*, would be.

103—*Lutanist*, player on a lute, Low Latin *lutana*. Note the climax in the comparison of the wind successively to a player of wild music, an actor declaiming tragedy, and a great poet. *This month*, April.

106—*Yule*, the Norse word for Christmas.

120—*Otway*, a Poet of the Restoration, author of “*Venice Preserved*” and the “*Orphan*,” of which Hallam says :—“They have both a deep pathos springing from the intense and unmerited distress of women.” Of the part of Belvidera, the heroine of “*Venice Preserved*,” he says :—“When that part is represented by such as we remember to have seen, no tragedy is honored by such a tribute not of tears alone, but of more agony than many would seek to endure.”

Tender is therefore no expletive.

We now see how the storm could "send his thoughts abroad," and also what his "shaping spirit" could make out of so common a thing as the sound of a gale.

VIII.

129—*A mountain birth*, a local storm originating among the mountains. He was then in the Lake District.

136—*Eddying*, whirling, as of a river. May they all reflect the motions of her pure mind.

YOUTH AND AGE.

The second part of this poem was written over forty years before the last part. The first part was written long after the second.

1—*Verse*, poetry. Develop the metaphor in "a breeze straying."

3—*A maying*. Life was for a time a scene of enjoyment.

4—*Poesy*, literally "making" the composition of poetry.

6—*Woful when*. The word *when* is "woful," as showing that he now was young no longer.

8—*House*; cf., "Our earthly house of this tabernacle."

Grievous wrong, causes much pain and is a sad obstruction to his spirit. He was troubled nearly all his life with rheumatism, and, from the time of his visit to Malta, with an oppression of breathing.

12—*Trim skiffs*, steamboats, not then so familiar as to be unfit for a poetic figure.

18 38—We must remember that these lines were written in the poet's boyhood, whence their sportive tone.

24—*Fond conceit*, a foolish notion, "fond" once meaning foolish, as "Thou fond mad woman;" and "conceit" simply conception, thought, as "The horrible conceit of death and night."

29—*Vesper-bell*, evening bell, or bell that at last "ringeth for evensong."

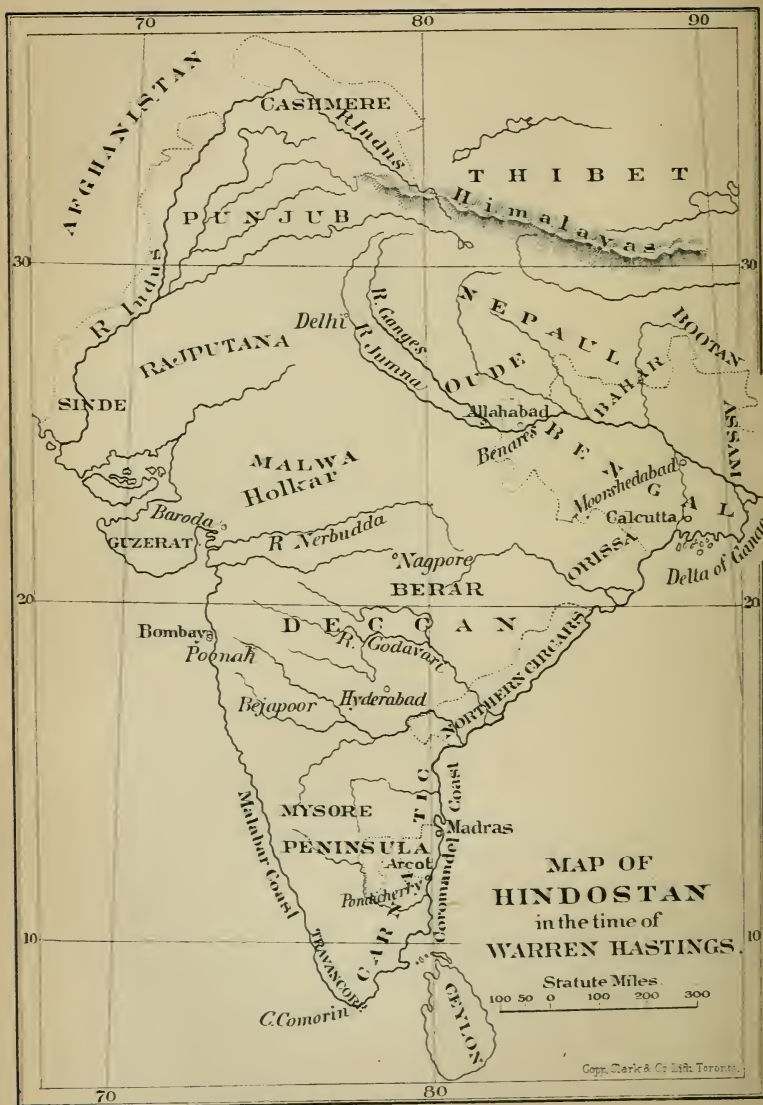
37—*Life is but thought*, a sentiment characteristic of Coleridge.

39—*Dew drops*, &c. Thoughts like those contained in the preceding lines were pleasing fancies in youth, but are a sad reality in old age, "the evening of life."

44-47—Do "leave" and "dismist" from perfect rhymes with "grieve" and "guest?" Why?

47—*Without the smile*, that should be caused by it, if he had not outstayed his welcome.





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WARREN HASTINGS:

AN ESSAY BY

LORD MACAULAY.

EDITED FOR HIGH-SCHOOL USE

WITH INTRODUCTIONS, NOTES, ETC.

BY

G. MERCER ADAM,

*Late Editor of "The Canadian Monthly," and "The Canada
Educational Monthly."*

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P R E F A C E .

The Senate of Toronto University having prescribed for the 1886 Matriculation Examinations in English Composition Macaulay's Essay on Warren Hastings, the present edition of the Essay has been prepared to aid the candidate in getting up the work. The literary student is to be congratulated on the selection of so attractive a work in English prose, at once interesting in matter and animated in style. He is also to be congratulated on the fact that an English classic is placed on the Curriculum, not, as has been the wont, for mere grammatical dissection, but for critical study, in its literary and rhetorical aspects, and as a mine of subjects for exercises in English Composition.

This new departure in the methods of English literature-teaching will, doubtless, be hailed with satisfaction. It will now be possible for the student to gain some adequate notion of the beauties of literature, and to discover in the great English masterpieces something more than the bony structure of the language. He will also be enabled to acquire facility in the writing of English, and have practice in the use of his pen as the instrument of written thought.

With this new departure the student should be encouraged to take a broad survey of English Literature, and to realise the fact that the texts prescribed for the work of the year deal only with a single work of a single author—that, in fact, there are fields be-

yond his present purview.* This is deemed an important matter ; and, hence, the fragmentary character of his work should always be held before the student, and his mind impressed with a sense of proportion. The Warren Hastings era in the annals of India, he should be told, is no more the history of Hindostan than the Essay on that ruler is all of Macaulay. Hastings, indeed, fills no larger niche in Oriental history than M. de Vaudreuil, or Intendant Bigot, fills in the early history of Canada.

The Essay having been prescribed for the purpose stated, the Editor has endeavoured to adapt his work to the wants of students. In the Introductions, in the hints on Composition, in the suggested Themes based upon the Essay, as well as in the Annotations, the Editor trusts that his work will be found of substantial service.

The Editor's acknowledgments are due to the authors of the books of reference enumerated elsewhere. To Dr. Hunter's " Brief History of the Indian People," and to Mr. S. Hale's edition of Macaulay's Essay, he is particularly indebted. The latter he found useful in checking his work. To Archibald MacMurchy, Esq., M. A., Rector of the Toronto Collegiate Institute, at whose suggestion the task was undertaken, the Editor's special thanks are due for kindnesses received while the book was passing through the press.

TORONTO, *April 10th, 1835.*

MACAULAY'S LIFE, AND THE CHARACTERISTICS OF HIS WRITINGS.



THOMAS BABINGTON (*Lord*) MACAULAY, one of the greatest masters of English prose, was born at Rothley Temple, Leicestershire, October 25th, 1800. His father, Zachary Macaulay, was intimately associated with Wilberforce in the emancipation of the West Indian slaves. To him, it is more than probable, the son was indebted for the sterling integrity and sturdy mauliness of his character; while to his mother, a most amiable lady of Quaker descent, he no doubt owed his affectionate and kindly disposition. Macaulay, early in life, gave promise of winning a notable name. As a boy he was precocious and self-confident; though he justified these characteristics by ceaseless reading, by the assiduous cultivation of his mental faculties, and by the exercise of a memory phenomenal in its strength. His university career at Cambridge was not distinguished for profound scholarship: he was rather a desultory student, and preferred to win success in his own paths. English literature was the field in which he chose to seek honors, and there he won them, as well as within the circle of a literary society attached to the College, where he shone in debate. In 1822 he took his B.A. degree, and two years afterwards obtained a College Fellowship.

On leaving the university Macaulay studied law; but though he was called to the bar he never practised the legal profession. Literature was his lode-star, and in the arena of letters he had already achieved a name. His early contributions to *Knight's Quarterly* had been well received; but public attention was first specially directed to the young writer by his article in the *Edinburgh Review* on Milton. This essay was the first of that long series of brilliant contributions to the Whig Quarterly, which earned for that periodical its reputation, and won for their author undying fame. Meanwhile politics was putting forward a rival claim for a hold on Macaulay's talents. Through the influence of Lord Landsdowne he was in 1830 returned to Parliament; and for the next four years he took an active part in the stirring scenes of the Reform Bill era. He was a Liberal in politics, and his vehement oratory and great powers of work were of much service to his party at this critical period of parliamentary history. In 1832 he was appointed a Commissioner of the Board of Control, which represented the Crown in its relation to the East India Company; and two

years afterwards he was nominated a member of the Supreme Council of India. The next four years Macaulay spent in Calcutta, working at his official duties with his accustomed thoroughness, though finding time to do an immense amount of miscellaneous reading, and to contribute occasional articles to the blue and yellow Quarterly. To this residence in India, and the impress it made upon the writer's mind, we doubtless owe two of the most brilliant essays in the language.

Returning to England in 1839 Macaulay again entered Parliament; but now as member for Edinburgh; and for a number of years he had a seat in the Cabinet. Laborious as were his Ministerial duties, he yet found time to pursue with unflagging ardour his literary work. The essays on Lord Clive and Warren Hastings are the product of this period, as are those admirable specimens of "rhymed rhetoric," the *Lays of Ancient Rome*. But alternate legislating and electioneering were not favourable to literary composition; and Macaulay was ambitious to do more than write essays and compose verse. He had long cherished the idea of writing a History of England; and, fortunately for literature, Parliamentary defeats and loss of office gave him the leisure, though now late in the day, to put his wish into effect. From now to the close of his life, with a brief interruption incident to his temporary return to politics, Macaulay threw his whole heart into the writing of his History. Few Englishmen were at the time so deeply versed as he in the country's annals; and none had hitherto hit the idea of making history popular, or were able to treat it with such picturesque effect. Alas! he lived to see but four volumes published; the fifth, a fragment, was not issued until after his death. The publication of the first instalment of the History, says Mr. Trevelyan, his biographer, "was greeted by an ebullition of national pride and satisfaction;" the success of the work, as a whole, was unprecedented. Nor can we wonder at this result, for, fragment as it is, and more or less marked by partisanship, literature has no richer treasures of historical portraiture, nor have the annals of any people been written with greater dash and spirit or with more sustained effort. The second instalment of the work, published in 1855, elicited even greater interest than did the first, and was received with marks of unqualified approval. The fifth and concluding volume appeared posthumously, for, at the close of 1859, the brain that had woven the wonderful fabric had ceased its functions. Its author died Baron Macaulay; and on the 9th of January, 1860, his remains were interred with impressive pomp in the Poets' Corner in Westminster Abbey.

The social aspects of Macaulay's life present some very loveable traits. His attachment to his sister, Lady Trevelyan, and the fond indulgence of a bachelor-uncle to her children, are prominent features in his biography, and pleasingly attest his affectionate disposition and warmth of heart. The "Life and Letters," by his nephew, Mr. Trevelyan, is one of the

most admirable biographies in the language, and should be read by all admirers of the great historian, orator, and essayist.

Macaulay is the most pictorial prose-writer in English literature. His power of graphic narration has rarely been equalled and never surpassed. With wide and accurate knowledge, and the faculty of readily bringing it to his aid, he has enriched the literature of history and biography with scenes and studies that bid fair to have perennial life. He was a typical Englishman; and his writings, both historical and literary, deal with subjects that interest the national mind and enlist the sympathies of the national heart. This is particularly the case when he treats of England's military heroes. Into these figures he infuses life and vigour, and their going and coming is as the tread of armed men. His power of reproducing the past is great; and the impression he leaves on the mind of the reader is vivid and lasting. His work always tells, for it is hearty and genuine. Nor is it ever timidly put forth, but invariably with confidence and conviction. In not a few instances this leads him into error, and gives a colour to his statements that does injustice to facts. But the error is an unwitting one, and is often but the exaggeration of truth. At times one has to stand off from his work to get its proper focus, and to see his facts out of the glare of his rhetoric. But he has painted many striking pictures, and imbued with fresh life many forgotten incidents and memorable figures of the past.

The characteristics of Macaulay's style are strength and clearness. It is said that he never wrote but one obscure sentence in his life. With equal truth it may be affirmed that he never penned a weak one. In reading Macaulay one often sighs, indeed, for an hour of languor, and for a passage of quiet repose. But there is as little of repose as there is of emotion. The tenderness that was in his nature he never imparts to his books. We have the firm hand of the robust rhetorician, but never the soft touch of the idealist or the poet. Macaulay has no acute sensibilities; and hence in his writings there is little of humor and less of pathos. Yet every page is instinct with life, bright with colour, and affluent of illustration. From every nook of literature he brings something to enrich his narrative and ornament his work. But decoration is not thought; still less is it philosophy. Macaulay is too practical to philosophise; but he never fails to stamp on our minds the image of his work. And this he does with consummate skill. Not only are his facts inexhaustible, but inexhaustible also are the resources of his art. On his canvas there may be daubs of colour, but the man and the scene he sets out to paint he always succeeds in making live before one. The process may be mechanical and the details too minute, but the result nevertheless is art.

The essay on Warren Hastings exemplifies both the merits and the defects of Macaulay as a writer. Though somewhat overloaded with ornament, the narrative is clear-cut, forcible and brilliant. It displays vast and varied knowledge, and is enriched with apt, if profuse, illustration. But Macaulay rarely brings out the deeper significance of events, and seldom looks into the heart for the motive of his actors. "His historical figures," says a writer, "form groups of individuals, not symbols of forces working behind the veil." Not only is there an absence of the analytic habit, but there is often a narrowness of view, and not infrequently poverty of thought. He is seldom original, and never profound. To the ordinary reader this is concealed by an animated style, and by a florid and abundant rhetoric.

Macaulay's fondness for antithetical writing often detracts from his sense of justice, and leads him unfairly to praise one man by defaming another. In his judgments, moreover, he is more frequently guided by precedent than by principle, his memory gaining the advantage over his sense of right. Truth he doesn't sue, but takes captive. In one other respect his work is defective: as the artists say, his pictures want atmosphere; he gets too near to the canvas, and, consequently, there is a lack of perspective. But despite these defects Macaulay is a great and attractive writer. He is always in earnest, and his industry makes his work thorough and accurate. The national history may yet be written more scientifically, but never with a sturdier patriotism or with more enthusiasm and fire.

IN connection with the Essay on Warren Hastings, it is instructive to note what its author has to say of it when offering the paper to the Editor of the *Edinburgh Review*, where it appeared in Oct., 1841. Here are some extracts from Macaulay's letter accompanying the contribution, which we find in the Trevelyan biography. Says Macaulay: "I am not quite sure that so vast a subject may not bear two articles. The scene of the first would lie principally in India. The Rohilla War, the disputes of Hastings and his Council, the character of Francis, the death of Nuneomar, the rise of the empire of Hyder Ali, the seizure of Benares, and many other interesting matters, would furnish out such a paper. In the second, the scene would be changed to Westminster. There we should have the Coalition; the India Bill; the impeachment; the characters of all the noted men of that time, from Burke, who managed the prosecution of Hastings, down to the wretched Tony Pasquin, who first defended and then libeled him. I hardly know a story so interesting, and of such various interest. And the central figure is in the highest degree striking and majestic. I think Warren Hastings, though far from faultless, one of the greatest men that England ever produced. He had pre-eminent talents for government, and great literary talents, too; fine taste, a princely spirit, and heroic equanimity in the midst of adversity and danger. "*Mens æqua in arduis*" (a mind serene amid difficulties) is the inscription under his picture in the Government House at Calcutta, and never was there a more appropriate motto. This story has never been told as well as it deserves."

INDIA BEFORE THE TIME OF WARREN HASTINGS.*

The kinship of the British people with a large section of the inhabitants of India is now known to be very close. Ethnologically, the Briton, the Brahmin, and the Rajput are descendants from the same parent stock, the Aryan or Indo-Germanic race. All three had an origin in common in Central Asia. Though it is customary to speak of India as being peopled by the two chief prehistoric races, the Aryans and the non-Aryans, there is in reality a four-fold division of the people. It is well to bear this in mind, as the question of race or "caste" in India is a very important one. The four elements that make up the population of British India are as follows: (1) The descendants of the Aryan or Sanskrit-speaking race (the Brahmins and Rajputs), who number about 16 millions; (2) the non-Aryans, or Aborigines, who in the British Provinces number about 18 millions; (3) the great mixed population, known as the Hindoos, which has grown out of the Aryan and non-Aryan elements (but chiefly out of the latter), and numbers about 124 millions; and (4) the Mohammedans, who some 900 years ago began to migrate to India, and now number about 41 millions.

There are two marked distinctions between the modern types of the Aryan and non-Aryan people in India, viz.: colour and features. The Aryans pride themselves on their fair complexion and finely-formed features. Of this class the most influential are the Brahmins, who monopolize priestly and literary pursuits, and are the learned men and teachers of India. The non-Aryans, partaking of the Asiatic type, have the squat Mongolian face and irregular features. From this class Britain has drawn some of her bravest and most loyal Indian soldiery—the Goorkhas and hill-men of the northern mountain ranges among the number.

* The India of to-day, including British Burmah and Assam, comprises twelve Provinces under British rule, and twelve groups of Native States. Each British Province has its own Governor or Commissioner, who is subordinate to the Governor-General or Viceroy, the head of the Supreme Government of India. The Native States, which are known as Feudatory India, are governed by native princes under the suzerainty of Britain. The total area of British India is nearly 960,000 square miles, with a population of close upon 200 millions. The total area of the Native States exceeds 500,000 square miles, with a population of over 55 millions. Besides the British Provinces and Native States there are a few Portuguese and French settlements; but they are of minor extent and importance.

Bound up as they are with the history and literature of the country, a word here may not be out of place on the religions of India. The prevailing creed is Hindooism, which is at once "a social league resting upon caste, and a religious alliance based upon worship." Buddhism was the first great bond of union among the Indian races; but long ago it was in great measure displaced in India by Brahminism, the religion of the Hindoo, though it has not failed to flourish in exile in other large districts of the East. Hindooism, though it had its origin in many sources, is more or less a fusion of the early faiths of the people, including the mild doctrines of Buddha, the ancient, simple beliefs of the Veda, with a combination of Vishnu worship, and, among the low-castes, the propitiation by human sacrifice of "Siva, the Destroyer." Its caste basis rests upon distinctions of race, occupation, and geographical position; and these for the most part erect rigid social barriers which clearly and sharply define the lines of society. Occupation generally, however, marks the dividing line. The four classes which caste recognizes are the Brahmins or priests, the soldiery, the traders, and the agriculturists. As a rule the Hindoo remains for life in the caste in which he is born.

But while the religion of Buddha was being supplanted by Hindooism, a new faith had sprung up in Arabia; and its professors, the Mohammedans, carrying aloft the crescent banner of Islam, poured their conquering hordes into India. The Mohammedan dynasty dates from about the year 1,000 A.D., and comes down to the nominal rule at Delhi of the last of the Mogul Emperors, who, for his complicity in the mutiny of 1857, was banished to Rangoon, where he died in 1862, and the dynasty ended with him. This long period of Mohammedan rule is marked by internal dissension and external conflict, by anarchy within and invasion from without. Persian and Afghan hordes successively attacked the northern boundaries of the kingdom, while its southern confines were, at a later period, repeatedly overrun by the Mahrattas and the Sikhs. The flourishing period of Moslem rule is embraced between the year 1526, when the Empire of the Moguls was founded, and the year 1707, when Aurungzebe, the most famed of the Mohammedan conquerors, died. After this Emperor's death the Mogul kingdom declined, for the Hindoo Provinces of Deccan and Oude won their independence, and the Sikhs and the Mahrattas were driven into revolt. It was from the two latter confederacies that Britain won India, aided by Mohammedan princes in Bengal, in the Carnatic, and in Mysore. The Mahratta power was finally broken in 1818; the Sikh Confederation was not overthrown until 1848.

British settlement in India practically dates from the year 1600, when the East India Company was founded. A hundred years earlier the Spaniards, the Portuguese, and the Dutch, actuated by the spirit of enterprise of the time, were all eager to reach the Indies, and to bring home some of its fabled wealth. Columbus, as we know, discovered the American Continent in

his search for a passage to the gilded Orient ; and Vasco de Gama reached it by way of the Cape of Good Hope. During the whole of the 16th century the Portuguese had the monopoly of trade in the East. When the crowns of Portugal and Spain were for a time united, the national interests of Portugal were merged in Spanish conquest in the West, and her Asiatic trade passed into the hands of the English and the Dutch. Competition between the two latter powers for the commerce of India was in the 17th century keen and on both sides aggressive. But in 1758 the tide turned in favour of Britain, when Clive, at Chinsurah, forced the Dutch to capitulate. Sixty years later, Dutch trade on the mainland of India received its death blow, when England, during the great French wars from 1793 to 1811, won all the colonies of Holland.

But England had other rivals besides the Portuguese and the Dutch in the trade of the Orient. France had early laid covetous eyes on the wealth of the Indies, and possessed a Trading Company in the East under charter of the French Crown. There were also various English companies formed for trading purposes in India and the Indian Archipelago. In 1709 the two chief companies were amalgamated under the style of "The United Company of Merchants of England Trading to the East Indies ;" and, forming one organization, it was to be henceforth known as the "East India Company." At successive periods this great corporation obtained a renewal of its charter, though its powers were more or less modified as time went on, until the year 1858, when the Company and its affairs were transferred to the British Crown. The first trading ventures of the East India Company were for cargoes of pepper and rich spices in the Indian Archipelago. On some of the islands of that sea the Company established factories, or houses of trade, which ere long brought its servants into collision with the Portuguese and the Dutch. In 1623 occurred the massacre by the Dutch at Amboyna, which drove the English from the Spice Islands to the mainland of India. The Company soon obtained a footing on the Coromandel coast, where it erected Fort St. George, its first territorial possession, and the nucleus of the later city of Madras. Settlements were ere long effected at Bombay, at Fort William (Calcutta), at Moorsheadabad, once the capital of Bengal, and at various points on the Hooghly, a navigable branch of the Ganges. The French also made good their foothold in the country, establishing themselves at Chandernagore, just above Calcutta, and at Pondicherry, a hundred miles south of Madras.

At first the English East India Company pursued its trade by permission of the native princes, whose rights it for a time respected, though the cupidity of the Company and its employes were ere long utterly to disregard both political and commercial morality. The rivalry of the trading companies of other nations, particularly the French, soon introduced discord into the country, and with it a factor of no inconsiderable account in the spoliation of India. Its fruit was soon seen in

setting the native rulers by the ears, in deposing some, and extorting from others immense sums of money, and ere long their territorial possessions. The trading companies were greedy and their servants unscrupulous. Such was the position of affairs in India when, in 1744, war broke out in Europe between England and France. At this time, M. Dupleix, the French Governor of Pondicherry, was ambitious that the rule of his countrymen should be the dominant one in India. The English, as may readily be imagined, were the special objects of the Governor's designs ; and in 1746 Madras surrendered to a French squadron which was then cruising on the coast. Two years afterwards, an English fleet failed in the attempt to take Pondicherry ; but Madras, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, was restored to Britain.

Meanwhile the local situation was not improved by these Anglo-French outbreaks. The whole of Southern India, on the fall of the Mogul power at Delhi, had become practically independent ; and in the Deccan the Nizam-ul-Mulk was founding at Hyderabad a hereditary dynasty. The Carnatic, the lowland district lying between the central plateau and the Eastern Sea, was governed by a deputy of the Nizam, known as the Nawab of Arcot. To the south lay Mysore, Tanjore, and Trichinopoly, which were all seats of independent Hindoo power. On the death, in 1748, of Nizam-ul-Mulk, the " War of Succession " to the throne of the Deccan, referred to in Macaulay's Essay, began to rage. The English supported the claim of Nasir Jung, a son of the late ruler ; while it suited the purpose of the French Governor, Dupleix, to maintain the cause first of one grandson and then of another. In like manner, to the subordinate sovereignty of Arcot, the French and English advanced the interests of rival claimants. The former upheld the pretensions of Chunder Sahib ; while the latter countenanced those of Mahommed Ali. To end the trouble, which was a source of danger to Madras, and to cripple the influence of France in the Carnatic, the English directed Clive, who had come to India in 1743, to proceed with a small but, as it turned out, brave force to seize Arcot. Clive's capture and subsequent defence of the place was the first of his great military achievements, and made the year 1751 famous in the annals of British India. From that date French Power in the East began to decline ; and its overthrow occurred nine years later, when Sir Eyre Coote won the victory of Wandewash, and in the following year starved Pondicherry into a surrender.

The scene now shifts to Bengal, and to the advent of Warren Hastings. In 1740 the hereditary succession to the throne of the Province had been broken by a usurper, who died in 1756. His grandson, Surajah Dowlah, a hot-headed youth of eighteen, became Nawab of Bengal. The Court was at Moorshedabad, contiguous to Cossimbazar and the European factories on the Hooghly. Down the river, at Calcutta, there was by this time a large settlement of English. Suddenly the city was seized by a panic on the appearance at its gates of an army of

the Nawab. On the pretext of capturing a relative, who had escaped from his vengeance, Surajah Dowlah had marched upon and invested Calcutta with his forces. Most of the English fled down the river in their ships ; though some 150 of them were captured and flung for the night into the military jail at Fort William. Only 23 emerged on the morrow from the horrors of the " Black Hole !"

While this tragic occurrence took place Clive was at Madras with the British fleet under Admiral Watson. On hearing of the calamity he instantly set out for the mouth of the Ganges, and Calcutta was promptly recovered. The Nawab fortunately consented to a peace, and made ample compensation for British losses. But Clive soon found the opportunity to settle accounts more satisfactorily with Surajah Dowlah. War having again broken out between France and England, the hero of Arcot made it the pretext to seize the French settlement on the Hooghly of Chandernagore. This enraged the Nawab ; and in hot haste he took up the cause of the French. Clive, acting upon the policy of the Governor of Pondicherry, put forward a rival claimant for the throne. Resort was had to arms. At Plassy, about 70 miles north of Calcutta, the die was cast ; and Clive with less than a tenth of Dowlah's army met and scattered it to the winds. Placing Meer Jaffier on the throne of Bengal, Clive dictated his own terms on elevating him to the position, and the East India Company became practically masters of the Province.

Little remains now to be said, for Warren Hastings comes at this period upon the scene, and Macaulay's Essay takes up the thread of the narrative. Plassy was fought on the 23rd of June, 1757 ; and in the following year Clive was appointed by the Court of Directors Governor of the Company's settlements in Bengal. The incidents connected with the dethronement of Meer Jaffier, the revolt of Meer Casim, and the re-conquest of Bengal, brings the story of British occupation well on in the career of Hastings. These and subsequent stirring events brought out the resources of that famed administrator ; and, with Clive's military genius, make the history of the period a notable one in the annals of India. Clive's rule in the East terminated in 1767 ; Warren Hastings' extends from 1772 to 1785. After that came the administration of Lord Cornwallis and the second Mysore war ; and the century closes with the third Mysore and the second Mahratta war and the military rule of the Marquis of Wellesley. These stormy scenes served to consolidate British power in India, and to prepare the way for other signal triumphs and a more peaceful and beneficent administration.

WARREN HASTINGS: HIS LIFE AND WORK.

1. Lord Macaulay's essay on Warren Hastings is one of his most notable contributions to the *Edinburgh Review*, where it appeared in October, 1841. Early in the previous year its writer had contributed to the same periodical his hardly less famous essay on Lord Clive, which should be read in connection with that on Warren Hastings, that the student may be familiar with the military achievements which in part precede, and in part run contemporary with, Hastings' lengthy and brilliant rule in India. The two men who were to become the founders of Britain's greatness in the East, and who, despite the stains on their character, figure grandly in the Anglo-Indian history of the eighteenth century, were, for the space of some seventeen years, actors together in the civil and military administration of India. How their careers for a time interlace will best be seen by reproducing the dates in connection with the lives of both men. Clive was born in 1725; he made his first voyage to India in 1743; and finally quitted the East in 1767. He died in England by his own hand in 1774. Warren Hastings was Clive's junior by only seven years; he made his first voyage to India in 1750; and, with a visit of four years' duration to England, was for thirty-five years in the East India Company's service, during thirteen of which he had charge of the affairs of the Indian Empire. Returning to England in 1785, he spent there the remainder of a long and chequerd life, dying in the year 1818.

2. Macaulay's personal knowledge of India, and his vast fund of historical and literary research, were, no doubt, inducing motives in his taking up the Malcolm and Gleig biographies of these heroes of Indian history as themes for an historical essay and studies of portraiture for the pages of the great Whig Quarterly. Britain's Indian Empire, with its barbaric wealth and glitter, the splendour of its temples, courts and palaces, the pageantry and stately ceremonial by which the native princes were surrounded, together with all the glamour of the East, formed a group of subjects well fitted to attract Macaulay's love of the picturesque and give scope for graphic writing. The achievements of the British arms, the successive conquests over the native tribes, the thrilling stories of peril and daring, the knavery of Indian intrigue and the counter diplomacy of the English military chiefs, were further subjects well calculated to enlist the ardour of a patriotic historian and furnish material for brilliant literary effects. It is just here that the student needs to be on his guard against Macaulay, and to take care that the fascination of his style and the brilliance of his stately sentences do not lead him astray in the estimate he desires to form of the events described in his pages, and falsify his judgment of the chief actors who play their part in the narrative. This is particularly necessary in reading the essay on Warren Hastings,

where Macaulay delights in marked contrasts, and glorifies his hero by throwing into the deepest shade those who were either his tools or who opposed him in the questionable methods by which he won success. It is this love for startling antitheses, combined at times with a too pronounced partisanship, that detracts from Macaulay's merits as a portrait-painter and historian, however spirited may be his narrative, dazzling his eloquence, and great the wealth of the historical and literary illustration he lavishes upon his work. Few, however, will fail to be captivated by the polish of the language, the vigour and perspicuity of statement, the telling turns of argument, and the succession and rhythmic flow of the glowing periods. Nor, despite what we have said of Macaulay's partisanship, and the artificial graces and noisy brilliance of many of his sentences, will the reader fail to note the essayist's manifest desire to mete out justice to the figures on his canvas, or remain unstirred while he vigorously applies the lash to meanness and deceit. The value he sets upon uprightness of character, straightforwardness of action, purity of living, and all that is noble and unselfish in human nature, is indeed a high one; though at times he sadly qualifies his ideal by an ingenuity of defence and a sophistry of language, when dealing with crime, that too often reveals the advocate and throws a cloud over the moral sense. But this is at once the weakness and the strength of Macaulay; and our estimate of his work, like our estimate of such a character as Warren Hastings, must not be upon a single trait of the man, but upon the individual as a whole, and upon the completed work he has left behind him.

3. Warren Hastings was born on the 6th of December, 1732, at Daylesford, Worcestershire, close by the old manor-house which in better days had been the home of the family for generations. Burke, with characteristic bitterness, speaks of his origin "as low, obscure, and vulgar;" but this is a figment of the brain of one who, however we may regard his motive, pursued Hastings in the decline of his years, and after a life-long service to his country, with unparalleled malignity, which the charm of his eloquence can alone enable us to forget. The parents of Hastings, neither of whom long survived his birth, were poor; and for years there was little to distinguish the future founder of Britain's Asiatic Empire from the children of the cotters with whom he played, and from whom he at times moodily withdrew to bemoan the loss of his ancestral estates and build new ones in the air. His parents dead, and his grandfather, who was rector of the parish and for a time had charge of young Hastings, being gathered to the tomb, our hero was adopted by his uncle in London, and sent by him to Westminster School, where he made the acquaintance of Cowper, Churchill, and other budding literary talent, and greatly distinguished himself in his studies. His uncle's death, after the lapse of some years, interrupted his school career, and, passing to the care of a distant relative, he was sent off in his seventeenth year to India to fill a commercial position in the service of the East India Company.

4. Hastings arrived at Calcutta in October, 1750, and at once entered upon his duties. Maintaining his habits of study and shrewdly discerning that preferment in the Company's service would be aided by an acquaintance with the native languages. Hastings applied himself to the study of Hindostanee and Persian, and soon acquired considerable facility in the speaking and writing of both. Endowed with great intellectual powers, his active mind did not stop at acquiring a knowledge of some of the native languages. He became deeply versed in the ways of the Oriental mind, familiar with its changefulness, quick to comprehend its sophistries ; and was soon able to pit against Indian intrigue European callousness, ungeneracy and faithlessness, and at times even the most shameless lack of honor. The school which propagated these vices was not that of an inherently bad heart ; for Hastings, though he frequently lapsed from virtue, had the instincts and manners of a gentleman. Rather was it the service of the East India Company, whose rule in India, strangely as the country had become subject to it, was then and for some time afterwards thoroughly mercenary and corrupt. Speaking of a later period in the history of India, Macaulay, in a memorable passage, says that "English valour and English intelligence have done less to extend and to preserve our Oriental Empire than English veracity." But the period of Britain's beneficent rule in India had not yet come ; nor was it to come until the administration of a reckless, ignorant, and extortionate trading company had given place to Governmental responsibility and control, influenced and guided in its action by the traditional honour and good faith of the English nation. The coming of that better day for India, which was to manifest the clemency and magnanimity of Britain's rule over a vast and subject people, though it was for a time deferred by the wanton acts of Warren Hastings, was actively brought about by his own instrumentality, ere he passed from the scene of his triumphs and lengthened sway. But as yet his star had not risen ; he was only a clerk in the Company's service, though conscious of talents which all the while kept chafing him into action. Presently his opportunity came. He had been appointed agent of the Company at Cossimbazar, a busy trading suburb of Moorshedabad, where was the Court of the native ruler of Bengal and the adjoining Provinces. Here he was employed when Surajah Dowlah, who was to become Britain's inveterate foe, succeeded to the Government and instantly turned upon the English. This monster-incarnate swooped down on the English colony at Cossimbazar, made Hastings and his fellow-countrymen prisoners, and marched upon Calcutta, signaling his presence there, and covering his name forever with infamy, by the horrors of the Black Hole. At this juncture Hastings' knowledge of the Indian vernacular, and his daring and resourceful mind, were of great service to the imprisoned English at Moorshedabad. Ingratiating himself with the partisans of the Nabob in revolt, Hastings secured conditional liberty, which he secretly used in furthering measures of deli-

cate diplomacy at the Court, until the moment for undisguised action came, when he fled to Calcutta and became helpful to Lord Clive in subduing the insurrection, which for the Hindoo ruler had its disastrous close on the memorable field of Plassey.

5. Surajah Dowlah, having escaped from the field of Plassey, was subsequently caught and put to death by the ally of the English, Meer Jaffier, who succeeded to the vice-throne of the Moguls. As a reward for his services Hastings was appointed by Clive political agent at Meer Jaffier's sham-court at Moorshedabad, for though Jaffier was nominally the Nabob of Bengal, it will be borne in mind, that the territory over which he ruled became in effect an English Province. Here Hastings remained until 1761, when, being appointed member of the Governing Council at Calcutta, he repaired thither, and for the next three years held a seat at the Board. In 1764 Hastings revisited England "with the consciousness," as a writer has expressed it, "of great talents for which, so far, he had no scope."

6. While in England Hastings seems to have occupied himself with intellectual pursuits, his favourite study of Persian literature engrossing his attention. By and by, financial embarrassments, for he had returned to England comparatively poor, compelled him again to seek employment at the hands of the East India Company. Appointed by the Directors Member of Council at Madras, in 1769 he once more set out for India. A circumstance may here be mentioned which affected Hastings' domestic life, and which, though happy, must have had an adverse influence when his work in India was done, and when in the decline of his years he looked for a peerage as the reward of his long and brilliant services. On the voyage to India he formed an attachment to a married lady alike dishonourable to himself and to the lady's husband, and only earned the right to call her wife after the scandalous purchase of a divorce. Residing at Madras for two years, Hastings now removed to Calcutta, on his appointment to the Governorship of Bengal, an office that ere long expanded into the Governor-Generalship of India, when Parliament, in 1773, changed the mode of administering the affairs of the country.

7. Here, at last, Hastings had scope for his talents. Unfortunately for his reputation and the good name of his country, the uses his talents were put to were, in the main, those of a sharp trader and overseer, doing the bidding of a Company, whose only concern was, not the good government of India, but the piling up in ever-increasing ratio, of its annual dividends. To the rapacity of this commercial association India owes the horrors and calamities of the period—the outrages perpetrated on her subject tribes; the humiliation of a brave and spirited people; the money wrung from her nabobs and princes; and all that followed in the train of a time of unrestrained plundering and license. "Then was seen," as Macaulay remarks, "what we believe to be the most frightful of all spectacles, the strength of civilization without its mercy."

8. In all these doings Hastings as we have said, was but the instrument of the Company, whose servant he was, and whose unceasing cry was for more and more dividends. After the withdrawal of Clive from the country matters became worse. Hastings, on assuming office at Calcutta, found the administration venal and corrupt. With the instructions of his greedy masters in his pocket, and ambitious in satisfying their demands to advance his own prospects, he could hardly be expected himself to show the loftiest morality. The temptation was great. The wealth of the Indies was enough to turn any man's brain. What marvel, that vast as the field was for plunder, he stooped to pillage, and even gave the troops out for hire to play the part of assassins ! But unscrupulous as was Warren Hastings, he was no mere brigand. His administration reduced chaos to order ; gave some measure of security to life and property ; widened the area of British jurisdiction ; and implanted in the breasts of a restive people the fear of English prowess, and in the hearts of knaves a wholesome dread of the English name.

9. We may here pass over the events which immediately followed Hastings' assumption of the Governorship of Bengal. The events show only too painfully the absence of those constitutional checks which at a later day were wholesomely imposed upon the Company's rule in India ; the license of official power in Calcutta in negotiations with the native princes ; and the ruthlessness with which it wrung from the treasure-houses of the nabobs those increasing revenues annually clamoured for by the insatiable English masters of the country.

10. Hastings' action in deposing Mahommed Reza Khan, which secured to the Company the sovereignty of Bengal ; his intrigues with, and the fate he afterwards dealt out to, the tool Nuncomar ; his breach of faith in cutting down the allowances guaranteed to the ruling princes, and his unscrupulousness in exacting enormous tribute from them ; his outrageous barter with Sujah Dowlah and the Government of Oude, in respect of the districts of Corah and Allahabad ; and, worst of all, his infamous conduct in regard to the Rohilla war, are charges of which no one with even the faintest sense of honour and fair dealing can acquit Warren Hastings, or break the force of by any palliating circumstance. The horrors of the Rohilla war, which Hastings, to his eternal shame, let loose on a brave and innocent people, no pen can adequately describe. Well may Macaulay arraign Hastings' biographer for attempting to gloss over the atrocity, and for absolving Hastings from responsibility for the butchery by Sujah Dowlah. Here is Macaulay's stinging remark on the consequences of the act : " More than a hundred thousand people fled from their homes to pestilential jungles, preferring famine, and fever, and the haunts of tigers, to the tyranny of him to whom an English and Christian Government had, for shameful lucre, sold their substance, and their blood, and the honour of their wives and daughters."

11. With an indictment so grave as this against the Company's rule in India, a large share in the responsibility for which must ever attach to Warren Hastings' name, a change in the mode of governing the country, it will be said, came not a day too soon. To erect a paramount jurisdiction, to get rid of rivalries and dissensions in the civil and military administration of the different presidencies, was the act of wisdom. But there was need of a change of men as well as of methods. And yet, until the country had rest from revolutions, and the sword had done its grim work of coercion and extermination, there was none more fitted than Warren Hastings to give peace and security to India, and, by his powers of organization and resolute executive, not only to satisfy his immediate employers, but to hand down his great trust, enlarged and enriched, to generations to come after him—a grand possession of the British Crown.

12. To the financial results of Hastings' policy we can withhold no word of praise: the sums seem incredible which he was able to extort from the native princes and transmit to his employers. Could the money have been obtained honestly for the Company and honourably for himself, his name would have been saved a lasting disgrace, and he would have better earned the honour and gratitude of his country. But no one was more bitterly to suffer for his misdeeds than Hastings himself. Already there was talk of impeachment in England; and envy and hatred were busy instigating his recall. Even in the scenes of his triumphs he had trouble. With the new Constitution that had been given to the country there came from England new members to the Council. Among these was Sir Philip Francis, the reputed author of "Junius Letters," and a man of ability, honour, and principle. Francis was to be a thorn in Hastings' flesh. The other newly-arrived Councillors—Mr. Monson and General Clavering—were also to thwart and humiliate him. Dissensions at the Council Board soon arose, and with dissension came intrigue. But the Governor was not easily to be balked; he was too old and too astute a diplomat for that. Nuncomar, his former tool and enemy) joined with Hastings' opponents at the Council to impeach him and work his overthrow. Grave charges, which for the most part were doubtless true, were brought against him; and for a time the twin swords of defeat and disgrace hung by a thread over his head. But Hastings had one friend (Mr Barwell) at the Council who was loyal to him, and he had another in Sir Elijah Impey, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. The latter's position, by some oversight in drafting the Indian Constitution, was quite independent of the Council, if not superior to it. By a happy thought, Hastings saw in this his advantage; and making some corrupt bargain with the Chief Justice, whom Macaulay depicts in the blackest colours, and who, certainly, did little credit to the ermine, the latter agreed to befriend the Governor and was not long in becoming his obsequious tool. With the odds against him at the Council Board, though

ever resolutely endeavouring to hold his own, he held a winning card in the machinery of the Courts, and this, with the stunning effect of the fall of a thunderbolt, he promptly invoked. Nuncomar was seized on a charge of felony, tried by Sir Elijah Impey, found guilty, and hanged. The storm which this act raised, for the victim was a Brahmin of a high family and of the purest caste, sensibly imperilled the whole country. But on the enemies and accusers of Hastings it had a wholesome effect. The voice of malignity was silenced, and that of the Governor once more became absolute. Destiny, too, played into his hands, for two of the Councillors—Monson and Clavering—who had joined Francis in opposing him, were no more. Hastings again became master of India.

13. Meantime, the rule of double government in the country—the sway of the sovereign princes and that of the dominant Company—was working trouble. The ruling Nabobs, taking advantage of the efforts to depose Hastings at the Council Board, endeavoured to reassert their independence; and French intrigue working on native cunning was at the time eager to incite revolt. The war in the Carnatic and the loss of Pondicherry had not been forgotten by the French; and now they were fomenting disturbance among the Mahrattas. Hyder Aly, formidable even in his old age, at this juncture again took up the sword. Fortunately, that old British bulldog, Sir Eyre Coote, had fight still left in him; and under Hastings' directions he promptly met Hyder, and at Porto Novo retrieved the losses of Sir Hector Munro and reasserted the prestige of the British arms.

14. These military expeditions necessarily made a drain upon the Company's treasury, and once more the Governor-General had to resort to his wits to find money. Alas! the new means Hastings used to obtain it were not a whit more moral. By this time Faction had withdrawn from the Council at Calcutta, for, as we have said, two of Hastings' opponents at the Board were dead, and now Sir Philip Francis, after fighting a duel with the Governor, had returned to England. Hastings, moreover, had recovered his influence throughout India; and where he was not loved his power was dreaded. There was one drop only of bitterness in his cup—the increasing revulsion of feeling in England against his rule in the East, and detestation of the crimes by which it had been marked. Heedless of this, or deeming his great services to India on many critical occasions a set-off to his misdeeds, he continued in his own masterful way to rule the country and collect the ever-needed tribute. With the Mahrattas, for the time being, he had bought peace; but though the Company's coffers at Calcutta were empty, he did not deem it discreet to look in their direction to have them refilled. Acting for his masters, avarice, however, quickly set its eye on Benares, and from Cheyte Sing, the Rajah, Hastings thought he could wring the needed treasure. How he nearly failed in his expectations, and jeopardized himself and the troops, we need not here

go into; nor need we linger over the scandalous story of his dealings with the Nabob and Princesses of Oude, from whom he foully extorted twelve hundred thousand pounds and added another item to the formidable list of his crimes. In this last iniquity Hastings had the assistance of that disgrace to the Bench, Sir Elijah Impey, whose conduct had roused in England the cry of indignant justice, and now insisted upon his recall.

15. The period of Hastings' sway in India was soon, however, to come to a close. But before this occurred, throughout the British possessions in the East there was peace. The time for his withdrawal from the country was well-chosen, if he looked for a friendly reception in England, and buoyed himself with the hope that, great as his services had been, his crimes would be overlooked. Reviewing his triumphant career, there can be no doubt that he was an unrivalled ruler. His policy was as remarkable as it was vigorous and successful. Unscrupulous as it often was, its immorality was even by his enemies, in no little degree, condoned by its success. His iniquitous exactions and the mercenary character of his rule were only thought of when the strength and fertility of his mind and his talents for command and organization were for the moment forgotten. Tried by the elevated standard which the captain-heroes of modern India have set up, his triumphs pale and his fame crumbles in the hand. But the India of a hundred years ago was different from the India of to-day, and criticism must be clement as well as just.

16. The year 1785 saw Hastings take leave of India. His reception in England, though for the moment personally gratifying, was the signal for persecution to begin its work. To much of the ingenuities of rancour, as well as to the manœuvring of party in England, he had been a stranger; and when Burke brought forward his motion of impeachment Hastings seems to have lost his skill in diplomacy, and blundered in entrusting his defence to a foolish advocate. Yet he had many friends who warmly espoused his cause, and even enemies who were more disposed to reward than persecute. His case, indeed, was far from hopeless. The people were with him; his old employers were zealous in his interest; the King was on his side; and even the Ministry were in the main friendly. But the Opposition were implacable; and a resolution of censure was carried in the House. Until this was withdrawn, or a formal trial and acquittal took place, the honours Hastings looked for from his country could not fitly be awarded, and he retired into private life. Then began those weary years of suspense, vexation, and obloquy which must have chafed the haughty spirit of the late Master of all India. His trials were meantime happily tempered by the solace of literary studies in his new won home—the ancestral manor of Daylesford.

17. But we now near the end. For eight long years his case was to drag out its weary and sullen length in the House. Hastings was neither found guilty nor acquitted. The enmity

of his old foe, Sir Philip Francis, had not slept ; and the flame of Burke's indignation still burnt fierce. On Hastings' return from India Burke had formulated the following charges, and in his place in the House accused his victim of high crimes and misdemeanors :

1st. With extortion, followed by expulsion, in respect to the Rajah of Benares.

2nd. With cruelty to the Royal family of Oude.

3rd. With conniving at extravagant contracts ; and

4th. With receiving undue presents.

18. Hastings' answer was that the grounds of crimination were aspersive, ill-founded, and malicious. But as each session passed other and more heinous charges were brought forward, and almost every act of the Governor-General was probed and denounced. The press, too, threw at him its lampoons, and even his wife, the once Queen of the East, became the object of satirical attack. In the Commons, papers dealing with periods of his administration were successively asked for, and every action was canvassed that could reflect upon the actor.

19. At length, wearied by delay, Hastings' friends in the House taunted the Opposition with cowardice in delaying the prosecution, and the incriminated himself asked "if his whole life was to be consumed in the impeachment." This had the desired effect : the prosecution now seriously began. Previously, Burke had launched his grand philippic on the Rohilla war ; Sheridan had delivered his famous speech on the Spoliation of the Begums ; and Fox was to deal with the case of Cheyte Sing. The excitement was about to culminate. In 1787, Parliament, under the influence of Sheridan's eloquence, in his great speech on the Oude charge, agreed to twenty articles of impeachment, and directed Burke to go before the House of Lords and impeach the late Governor. The sergeant-at-arms was also directed to arrest Warren Hastings and bring him to the Bar of the Peers. The session, however, was within a few days of its close ; the Governor was admitted to bail, and the trial postponed till the following year.

20. On the 13th of February, 1788, that august scene which Macaulay has so graphically described, the opening of the Court for the trial of Warren Hastings, in the great hall of William Rufus, comes now into view. The brilliant Whig historian has made the incidents of the trial for ever memorable. The scene lives, and is ever being enacted in the page of history. All that was illustrious at the period in England's proud annals gathered to make up the gay pageant. "Neither military nor civil pomp," we are told, "was wanting." Accused and accusers, judges and advocates, Lords and Commons, great officers of State, Ministers, Representatives, and Plenipotentiaries, grand dames, and members of the Royal family—all were present eager to see so rare a spectacle, and with strained attention to note each incident of the historic scene. But after the formal preliminaries had passed, and with them

the rhetorical efforts of the three renowned managers for the prosecution, interest in the proceedings subsided, and adjournment followed adjournment until the great trial was in danger of becoming an historic farce. Years went on, and the Parliament that had ordered Hastings to be tried was itself dissolved. For a time, it was thought, all proceedings would be dropped. At length, in the spring of 1795, the incriminated Governor was called to the Bar of the Lords to hear the decision of the Court. This, it was thought, must be favourable; for, in the eight years the charges had been hanging over the accused, resentment had surely by this time turned to sympathy. Mutation, at any rate, had the while been at work. The strifes of party had separated a few who had originally met to take part in the trial, and death had separated more. Says Macaulay, quoting Hastings' own remark: "the arraignment had taken place before one generation, and the judgment was pronounced by another." That judgment was *acquittal*!

21. The rest of the story is briefly told. Hastings had scored another victory; but it was a barren one. He had relief from the wearying and galling effects of a protracted prosecution; but he had little else. He received no mark, which he coveted, of royal favour or of his country's approval. While Pitt remained Minister there was no chance of that. Meantime the trial had ruined him. The legal and other expenses of the impeachment exceeded seventy thousand pounds; and he spent forty thousand on his Daylesford estate. Fortunately, the generosity of the Directors of the East India Company, who assumed the costs of the trial, and gave him a handsome allowance for life, relieved him from monetary anxiety, and enabled him to spend his declining years in modest ease.

22. In the three-and-twenty years of his retirement, after his acquittal by the House of Lords, Hastings figures little in the world. Once, we are told, he had occasion to be present in the House of Commons, and that body, fain to do honour to the saviour of India, paid him the marks of respect that was in its power. Again, when the Allied Sovereigns visited London after Waterloo, Hastings received some marks of favour from royalty, and was sworn a member of the King's Privy Council. But now, at his advanced age, and after a generation of neglect and contumely, the honour that could come to him was of little moment. Whatever he was able to extract of the sweets of life must have been in the heyday of his power and influence in India. What he had done for Britain's Empire in the East never received public recognition in England; nor did his country do him the justice to discriminate very closely between his merits and his faults. This was left to a juster assize. Hardly in history is there another instance of a man who, deserving well of his country, made it impossible for his country to acknowledge his deserts. In August, 1818, there died and was buried at Daylesford, the Right Honourable WARREN HASTINGS.

ON ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

For some years our educational systems have happily been shaped in accordance with the conviction that our mother tongue ought to have the first claim upon the teacher in the training of youth. Unfortunately, in the teaching of the mother tongue, educational effort has in a great measure been dissipated in grammatical analysis and other purely mechanical details, while the step beyond, facility in the writing of good English, has been little taught or acquired. Years have been spent by the pupil in putting up the scaffolding, but the building itself has rarely been got under way. We are far, of course, from implying that any fair measure of success in the writing of English can, as a rule, be obtained without much drill in syntax. Yet it is well known that many journalists and literary men acquire even great skill in this art who are destitute of any technical knowledge of the language. In their case a correct ear, familiarity with good literary models, and contact with people who habitually speak good English, supply the place of text-books and even of unimpeachable school drill in grammar. It may be said, indeed, that it has been their good fortune to be spared the dulling effects of much grammatical study; and that relief from this has given them the ready power of writing clearly their own thoughts and of quickly apprehending the thoughts of others. However this may be, there can be no question that the ability to write clear and correct English is in these days the educational need of our youth, with such a knowledge of the language as will discipline the mind rather than burden the memory. With the writing of good English will come the power of appreciating its noble literature, and of stimulating faculties that too often lie dormant or run to waste.

How the writing of English can best be acquired is a question not easily answered. Text-books and intelligent training will do something; but practice and the study of good models, will, admittedly, do more. The first step is to train the pupil to think. If at first, which is likely to be the case, the pupil cannot use his reflective powers so as to provide himself with material for a theme in Composition, he may with advantage be referred to some pregnant passage occurring in the works of a good writer. He should be asked to gather the substance of the writer's argument in the passage, and to translate it into his own words. The paraphrase he may then commit to paper. Varied practice of this sort, with the corrections and counsel of a good teacher, will do more to impart facility in writing than any number of rules, or a lengthy course of grammatical exposition, however good. In English Composition, as in other branches of education, much more may be attained by oral than by text-book teaching. There

are a few hints, however, that may be useful to the pupil, which we here venture to set forth, with the remark that, in this as in other studies, little can be done without the pupil's exercise of his own mental powers, or without taste in the selection and assiduity, as we have said, in the reading of good literary models.

Before beginning a practical course of English Composition, the teacher will do well to impress upon the pupil's mind the following requisites to success in the writing of English, mastery of which, in his exercises and practice, the learner should endeavour to gain : (1) Familiarity with the subject to be written about ; (2) Some notion of method in the arrangement of topics, and natural sequence of ideas in treating of them : (3) A fair English vocabulary (the simpler the better) ; (4) An accurate knowledge of the meanings of words and phrases ; (5) Some degree of taste and sense of propriety in the language used ; (6) Such an acquaintance with the rules of grammar as will keep one from violating syntax ; and (7) "A ready perception of the beauties of language and of those things that tend to make it most effective for its purpose."

With these general ideas impressed upon the mind of the pupil, and with preliminary practice in sentence-building, including exercises in variations of its structure, phraseology, and sequence, he may go on to the composition of the paragraph, and to the analysis of its properties—unity, consecutiveness, and variety. From these he may proceed to exercise on theme-writing, and to lessons on the qualities of style, particularly in its essentials of perspicuity and strength. In the exercises on the analysis of style, the utmost care should be taken to make criticism on the mere mechanism of the language subordinate to the all-important consideration of the thought and aim of the writer, which form the essence of every literary work. While a student of literature, it should not be forgotten that the pupil is also a student of the world ; that he is being prepared to enter upon a life of thought and action for himself ; and that the pedantry which makes so much of school work in the grammatical construction of the language is a poor substitute, as a means of training, for those impressive lessons, both of principle and settlement, which happily abound in English literature, and are its most distinguished characteristic. Nor should it be forgotten that over-attention to the minutæ of criticism prevents the pupil from forming just or adequate conceptions of an author's work, and, in the case of a masterpiece of literature, limits his vision of its large and general aspects.

In proceeding to theme-writing, the teacher's care, after he has seen to the grammatical purity of the pupil's compositions, should be chiefly directed to the supervision of their rhetorical qualities. A heavy hand will here be needed, as the tendency of imaginative youth is to run riot among the flowers of the language. The first requisites he should exact are

Simplicity and Clearness; after that may come Strength. Perhaps no better rules can be given, as directions to the pupil in attaining these requisites, than the old and simple ones of Lindley Murray, which we fear are, in these modern days, not so familiar as they ought to be, and hence may here be quoted:

1. "Avoid," says Lindley Murray, "all such words and phrases as are not adapted to the ideas you mean to communicate, or which are less significant than others, of those ideas."

2. During the course of the sentence the scene should be changed as little as possible, *i. e.* [do not let the mind be hurried by sudden transitions from person to person, or from subject to subject.]

3. Never crowd into one sentence things which have so little connection that they could bear to be divided into two or three sentences; and keep clear of all unnecessary parentheses.

4. For promoting the strength of a sentence, prune it of all redundant words and members; much force is added to a sentence by brevity.

5. Attend particularly to the use of copulatives, relatives, and all the particles employed for transition and connection.

6. Dispose of the capital word, or words, so that they may make the greatest impression; and, when the subject admits of it, attend to the climax of a sentence.

7. A weaker assertion or proposition should never come after a stronger; when a sentence consists of two members, the longer should generally be the concluding one.

8. Avoid concluding a sentence with an adverb, a preposition, or any inconsiderable word; and be careful not to misplace an adverb.

[There is no word in the English language, says a modern authority in grammar, which is so frequently misplaced as *only*. Hence, it is important to lay down the rule with regard to it: "*Only*" limits the word or words immediately following it; *Alone*, limits the word or words immediately preceding it.]

9. In the members of a sentence, where two things are compared or contrasted with one another, whether either a resemblance or an opposition is intended to be expressed, some resemblance in the language and construction should be preserved. When the things themselves correspond to each other, we naturally expect to find a similar correspondence in the words.

10. Attend to the harmony and easy flow of the words and members.

11. The same word should not be repeated too often in the same sentence or paragraph, though the sense should not be sacrificed to avoid repetition.

12. Long and short sentences should be agreeably interspersed in a paragraph: the ear tires of a number of sentences of similar construction following each other with monotonous regularity.

In setting themes for composition the teacher will do well at first to avoid subjects that make unusual demands upon the pupil's powers of reflection, unless they are familiar to him. Narrative composition, on some incident or story; on some familiar object or feature of local interest; or on some character in, or event of, history; will be found much more suitable. At first a skeleton, or scheme of arrangement in the topics, should be supplied, such as the following:

In Biography: 1, Place and circumstances of birth; 2, Youth and education; 3, Occupation of life, and circumstances determining that occupation; 4, Progress in life-work; 5, Death and attendant circumstances; and 6, Reflections on the character, and lessons drawn from the life, passed under review.

In History: 1, The event itself; 2, Cause or occasion of it; 3, The time and place; 4, The manner of its happening and attendant circumstances; and 5, The result: what it produced or effected

In the essay on Warren Hastings, in the following pages, abundant material will be found for composition themes, in both historical and biographical narration. A list of the more prominent of these themes the editor has appended to the present paper. As an exercise to the pupil, and that it may tend to familiarise him with the work he may be called upon to do, in writing compositions on the essay, the following model of a paragraph, enlarged from an outline of the life of Lord Clive, is herewith added. The model is taken from Dalglish's "English Composition" (Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd), a work that may be commended to the teacher. The space taken up with the example is more readily given, as the incidents of the sketch will be of interest to the student who proceeds to the study of the essay on Warren Hastings. The editor's introductory sketch on "Warren Hastings' Life and Work" may be said to bear the same relation to Macauley's essay that Mr. Dalglish's outline bears to his extended paragraph. With that idea in the writer's mind the sketch appears in the preceding pages.

EXAMPLE.—LORD CLIVE.

1. *Outline.*

- 1.—*Description*: The founder of the British Empire in India.
- 2.—*Narrative*: Born at Styche (Shropshire), 1725—idle and mischievous at school—goes to Madras—clerk in the E. I. Company—disgusted with the monotony of office life—welcomes the call to military service—English influence in India very low—great success of Clive's exploits—Arcot, 1751—Plassy, 1757—great reputation—returns to England, 1760—made an Irish peer—affairs go wrong in his absence—sent out to put them right, 1764—restores perfect order in eighteen months—returns to England, 1767—his conduct and administration assailed, 1773—acquitted—commits suicide, 1774.
- 3.—*Character*: Great warrior and able statesman—resolute and uncompromising—often unscrupulous—always successful—the effects of his labours

2. *Paragraph.*

"Robert, Lord Clive, Baron of Plassy, the founder of the British Empire in India, was born at Styche, in Shropshire, in 1725. At school, he showed greater aptitude for mischief and acts of recklessness than for learning; and it was a relief to his parents to get him safely shipped off to India in 1744. He entered the civil service of the Company at Madras, at a time when its prosperity had sunk to a very low ebb; and the monotony of his sedentary life so depressed him, that he oftener than once attempted to commit suicide. When French encroachment and intrigue rendered it necessary to take measures to save English influence from total extinction, Clive gladly welcomed the call to active service. His change of profession marks an epoch in the history of India. From the day when he assumed the sword, English interests began sensibly to revive. His first great exploit was the capture and defence of Arcot, with only 500 men, 300 of whom were natives. His crowning triumph was the victory of Plassy, which laid Bengal at the feet of the English. His own reputation was now firmly established, and his name became everywhere a tower of strength. On his return to England in 1760, he re-

ceived the thanks of the Company, and an Irish peerage from Government. But affairs went wrong in his absence, and in 1764, the Company sent him out again to set them right. This, by his vigorous measures, he very soon succeeded in doing. In the course of eighteen months, perfect order was restored; and on his final return to England in 1767, he was received with the distinction which his great services deserved. But his reforms had given offence to many of those who had profited by the former laxity of affairs; and it is to be regretted that many of his acts were of so questionable a character as to give his enemies a handle against him. In 1773, his administration was made the subject of a Parliamentary inquiry. The decision was in his favour; but he was dissatisfied with the terms of the acquittal; and the mere fact of his having been put upon his trial affected him so deeply, that he sought relief in suicide, November 22d, 1774. Clive was one of the greatest warrior-statesmen of whom England can boast. Bold, resolute, and rapid as a soldier, he was equally calm, judicious, and comprehensive as an administrator. It cannot be denied that he was often unscrupulous in opposing cunning with cunning; but he was not cruel; he was not selfish; and his faults have been condoned by the success of his career, and by the splendid services he rendered to his country."

THEMES FOR COMPOSITION

CHIEFLY BASED UPON MACAULAY'S ESSAY.

1. Macaulay's life and career; the chief subjects and characteristics of his writings.
2. The origin of the East India Company; how it came to rule in India; the character of that rule; and the transfer of its interests, why and when, to the Crown.
3. Hastings' ancestry; date and place of birth; school days and school companions.
4. First voyage to India, and entry on the E. I. Co's service; occasion of his volunteering for military duty, and subsequent diplomatic employment.
5. Lord Clive's administration in India; with some facts regarding his life and military career.
6. The Massacre in the "Black Hole," Calcutta.
7. The Battle of Plassey, and its incidents.
8. Macaulay's description of the Bengalee character, as typified in Nuncomar.
9. The Rohilla War, and Hastings' shameful bargain with Sujah Dowlah.
10. "The Letters of Junius," and the evidence in support of Macaulay's assumption that Sir Philip Francis was the author.
11. Nuncomar's conspiracy against Hastings, and the result.
12. Sir Elijah Impey's share in Hastings' act of reprisal, *re* Nuncomar, and Macaulay's estimate of the Chief Justice.

13. Macaulay's defence of Hastings in the Nuncomar matter ; reasons.

14. Contentions at the Council Board in Calcutta ; reasons ; sides taken by the members of Council ; and ultimate triumph of the Governor-General.

15. Account of the misunderstanding in regard to Hastings' resignation of the Governorship ; the E. I. Co. Directors' action thereon ; and Hastings' retention of office.

16. The two systems of Double Government in India,—the one established by Clive and abolished by Hastings, and the other which arose out of the growing power of the independent princes and the decline of Mogul rule at Delhi.

17. The "Regulating Act" of 1773 ; the conflict which it occasioned between judicial and political rule in Bengal ; and Sir Elijah Impey's reign of terror.

18. Struggle with Hyder Ali ; Sir Eyre Coote, and the victory at Porto Novo.

19. The Cheyte Sing affair ; incidents in Hastings' visit to Benares ; the fate of the Rajah's territory.

20. Hastings' transactions with Oude ; persecution and plunder of the Begums.

21. Sir Elijah Impey's share in the Oude spoliation ; his recall and fate.

22. Macaulay's review of Hastings' work in India, and estimate of his character and attainments.

23. Macaulay's tribute to Burke ; the compliment he pays him on his acquired knowledge of India ; reasons assigned for his hostility to Hastings.

24. The impeachment of Hastings ; grounds for it ; who were engaged in the prosecution.

25. Fox's speech on the Cheyte Sing charge ; Pitt's curious vote in the House on Fox's motion ; and Macaulay's criticism upon the Minister's action.

26. Sheridan's oration on the Spoliation of the Begums, and its effect on the House.

27. The trial and its proceedings ; delays ; result.

a. Macaulay's description of the scene in Westminster Hall.

b. Burke's opening speech for the prosecution.

c. Incidents connected with the gathering to hear the verdict of the Peers ; time's changes ; public sympathy for the accused.

28. Hastings' closing years in England ; expenses of the trial ; the Company's generosity ; regains his ancestral estates.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

YEAR.	AGE	EVENT.
1600		East India Company granted its first charter.
1623		Massacre of English by the Dutch at Amboyna.
1640		Madras founded; Calcutta, 1645; Bombay, 1665.
1658		Mogul Emperor Aurungzebe began to reign. (Died, 1707.)
1698		English acquire Calcutta by purchase.
1709		Amalgamation of rival East India Companies.
1725		Robert Clive born. (Committed suicide, 1774.)
1732		Warren Hastings born. (Died 1818; age 86.)
		Edmund Burke born. (Died 1797.)
1740		Sir Philip Francis ("Junius?") born. (Died, 1818.)
1742	10	Hastings at Westminster School.
		Dupleix made Governor of French India.
1746		Madras surrenders to French. (Restored 1748.)
1747		Clive enters E. I. Co.'s service as ensign.
1749		Charles James Fox born. (Died, 1806.)
1750	18	Hastings arrives in India. Clerk in Bengal.
1751		Clive victorious at Arcot.
1752	20	Hastings sent to trade at Cosimbazar.
1756		Massacre of English in Black Hole at Calcutta.
1757	25	H. prisoner and secret agent of E. I. C. at Moorshedabad.
		Battle of Plassey gained by Clive.
1758		Clive takes Chinsurah from Dutch. Governor of Bengal.
1759		William Pitt (son of Earl of Chatham) born. (Died, 1806.)
1760		Clive raised to peerage as Baron Plassey.
		Sir Eyre Coote defeats French at Wandewash.
		George III. King of England. (Died, 1820.)
1761	29	Hastings made member of Council at Calcutta.
		Sir Eyre Coote takes Pondicherry from the French.
1763		Revolt of Meer Cossim. Massacre at Patna.
1764	32	Hastings returns to England. Battle of Buxar.
1767		Clive's rule in India terminates.
		(to 1772) Dual system of administration in Bengal.
1769		Letters of Junius commenced; ended 1772.
	37	Hastings returns to India as member of Council at Madras.
1772	40	" made Governor of Bengal.
		" removes Mahommed Reza Khan.
1773		" sells Corah and Allahabad to Oude.
		The Regulating Act passed by British Parliament.
		Sir P. Francis made a member of the Supreme Council at Bengal, and Sir Elijah Impey appointed Chief Justice.
		Supreme Court of Judicature established at Calcutta.
1774	42	Hastings made Governor-General of India.
		English troops lent to conduct Rohilla war.
1775	43	Hastings accused in Council of taking bribes.
1776		Nuncomar condemned by Sir E. Impey and executed.
1777		Hastings quarrels with the Council and the Directors.
1778	46	" marries Baroness Imhoff.
		Pondicherry captured by Sir Hector Munro.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE—(*Continued*).

YEAR.	AGE	EVENT.
1780	48	Hastings fights a duel with Sir Philip Francis. (to 1799) Wars with Hyder Ali and Tippoo Saib in Carnatic. Hyder Ali defeated by Sir E. Coote at Porto Novo.
1781		Plunder of Cheyte Sing and the Begums. Benares made subject to the East India Co. Hastings accused of taking a bribe from Nabob of Oude.
1784		Pitt carries his India Bill in Parliament.
1785	53	Hastings resigns and returns to England.
1787		Burke proposes to impeach Hastings.
1788	56	Hastings tried for high crimes and misdemeanors.
1794	62	" acquires ancestral estates at Daylesford.
1795	63	" acquitted, April 23.
1799		End of third Mysore war: Wellington at Seringapatam; Tippoo Saib killed and territory annexed.
1800		Lord Macaulay born.

GOVERNORS & GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF INDIA
UNDER THE EAST INDIA COMPANY, 1758-1858.

1758.—Lord Clive, first Governor.	1805.—Marquis of Cornwallis, 2nd Admin.	
1760.—Holwell, Mr.	} <i>Interim Gov's.</i>	1806.—Earl of Minto.
Vansittart, Mr.		1815.—Earl of Moira (Marquis of Hastings)
1765.—Spencer, Mr.		1823.—Earl Amherst.
Lord Clive.		1826.—Lord Wm. Cavendish Bentinck.
1767.—Harry Verelst.		1835.—Sir Chas. Metcalfe (<i>pro tem.</i>)
1769.—John Cartier.		1836.—Lord Auckland.
1772.—Warren Hastings ; first Governor-General, 1774.		1842.—Earl of Ellenborough.
1786.—Marquis of Cornwallis.		1844.—Viscount Hardinge.
1793.—Sir John Shore (Lord Teignmouth).		1848.—Marquis of Dalhousie.
1798.—Lord Mornington (Marquis of Wellesley).		1856.—Earl Canning.

VICEROYS UNDER THE CROWN, 1858-1885.

1858.—Earl Canning.	1872.—Earl of Northbrook.
1862.—Lord Elgin.	1876.—Earl of Lytton.
1864.—Sir John (Lord) Lawrence.	1880.—Marquis of Ripon.
1869.—Earl of Mayo.	1884.—Earl of Dufferin.

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* Those marked with an asterisk are specially commended to the student for consultation. † Vol. 25. ‡ Vol. 33.

WARREN HASTINGS.*

We are inclined to think that we shall best meet the wishes of our readers if, instead of minutely examining this book, we attempt to give, in a way necessarily hasty and imperfect, our own view of the life and character of Mr. Hastings. Our feeling towards him is not exactly that of the House of Commons which impeached him in 1787 ; neither is it that of the House of Commons which uncovered and stood up to receive him in 1813. He had great qualities, and he rendered great services to the State. But to represent him as a man of stainless virtue is to make him ridiculous ; and from regard 10 for his memory, if from no other feeling, his friends would have done well to lend no countenance to such adulation. We believe that, if he were now living, he would have sufficient judgment and sufficient greatness of mind to wish to be shown as he was. He must have known that there were dark spots on his fame. He might also have felt with pride that the splendour of his fame would bear many spots. He would have wished posterity to have a likeness of him, though an unfavourable likeness, rather than a daub at once insipid and unnatural, resembling neither him nor anybody else. "Paint 20 me as I am," said Oliver Cromwell, while sitting to young Lely. "If you leave out the scars and wrinkles, I will not pay you a shilling." Even in such a trifle, the great Protector showed both his good sense and his magnanimity. He did not wish all that was characteristic in his countenance to be lost, in the vain attempt to give him the regular features and smooth blooming cheeks of the curl-pated minions of James the First. He was content that his face should go forth marked with all the blemishes which had been put on it by time, by war, by sleepless nights, by anxiety, perhaps 30 by remorse ; but with valor, policy, authority, and public care written in all its princely lines. If men truly great

* *Memoirs of the Life of Warren Hastings, first Governor-General of Bengal.* Compiled from Original Papers, by the Rev. G. R. Gleig, M. A., 3 vols., 8vo. London : 1841.

knew their own interest, it is thus that they would wish their minds to be portrayed.

Warren Hastings sprang from an ancient and illustrious race. It has been affirmed that his pedigree can be traced back to the great Danish sea-king, whose sails were long the terror of both coasts of the British Channel, and who, after many fierce and doubtful struggles, yielded at last to the valour and genius of Alfred. But the undoubted splendour of the line of Hastings needs no illustration from fable. One
10 branch of that line wore, in the fourteenth century, the coronet of Pembroke. From another branch sprang the renowned Chamberlain, the faithful adherent of the White Rose, whose fate has furnished so striking a theme both to poets and to historians. His family received from the Tudors the earldom of Huntingdon, which, after long dispossession, was regained in our time by a series of events scarcely paralleled in romance.

The lords of the manor of Daylesford, in Worcestershire, claimed to be considered as the heads of this distinguished
20 family. The main stock, indeed, prospered less than some of the younger shoots. But the Daylesford family, though not ennobled, was wealthy and highly considered, till, about two hundred years ago, it was overwhelmed by the great ruin of the civil war. The Hastings of that time was a zealous cavalier. He raised money on his lands, sent his plate to the mint at Oxford, joined the royal army, and after spending half his property in the cause of King Charles, was glad to ransom himself by making over most of the remaining half to Speaker Lenthall. The old seat at Daylesford still
30 remained in the family ; but it could no longer be kept up, and in the following generation it was sold to a merchant of London.

Before this transfer took place, the last Hastings of Daylesford had presented his second son to the rectory of the parish in which the ancient residence of the family stood. The living was of little value ; and the situation of the poor clergyman, after the sale of the estate, was deplorable. He was constantly engaged in lawsuits about his tithes with the new lord of the manor, and was at length utterly ruined.
40 His eldest son, Howard, a well-conducted young man, obtained a place in the Customs. The second son, Pynaston, an idle, worthless boy, married before he was sixteen, lost his

wife in two years, and died in the West Indies, leaving to the care of his unfortunate father a little orphan, destined to strange and memorable vicissitudes of fortune.

Warren, the son of Pynaston, was born on the sixth of December, 1732. His mother died a few days later, and he was left dependent on his distressed grandfather. The child was early sent to the village school, where he learned his letters on the same bench with the sons of the peasantry; nor did anything in his garb or fare indicate that his life was to take a widely different course from that of the young rustics 10 with whom he studied and played. But no cloud could overcast the dawn of so much genius and so much ambition. The very ploughmen observed, and long remembered, how kindly little Warren took to his book. The daily sight of the lands which his ancestors had possessed, and which had passed into the hands of strangers, filled his young brain with wild fancies and projects. He loved to hear stories of the wealth and greatness of his progenitors, of their splendid house-keeping, their loyalty, and their valour. On one bright summer day, the boy, then just seven years old, lay on the bank 20 of the rivulet which flows through the old domain of his house to join the Isis. There, as threescore and ten years later he told the tale, rose in his mind a scheme which, through all the turns of his eventful career, was never abandoned. He would recover the estate which had belonged to his fathers. He would be Hastings of Daylesford. This purpose, formed in infancy and poverty, grew stronger as his intellect expanded and as his fortune rose. He pursued his plan with that calm but indomitable force of will which was the most striking peculiarity of his character. When, under 30 a tropical sun, he ruled fifty millions of Asiatics, his hopes, amidst all the cares of war, finance, and legislation, still pointed to Daylesford. And when his long public life, so singularly chequered with good and evil, with glory and obloquy, had at length closed for ever, it was to Daylesford that he retired to die.

When he was eight years old his uncle Howard determined to take charge of him, and to give him a liberal education. The boy went up to London, and was sent to a school at Newington, where he was well taught but ill fed. He always 40 attributed the smallness of his stature to the hard and scanty fare of this seminary. At ten he was removed to Westmin-

- ster School, then flourishing under the care of Dr. Nichols. Vinny Bourne, as his pupils affectionately called him, was one of the masters. Churchill, Colman, Lloyd, Cumberland, Cowper, were among the students. With Cowper, Hastings formed a friendship which neither the lapse of time nor a wide dissimilarity of opinions and pursuits could wholly dissolve. It does not appear that they ever met after they had grown to manhood. But forty years later, when the voices of many great orators were crying for vengeance on the
- 10 oppressor of India, the shy and secluded poet could image to himself Hastings the Governor-General only as the Hastings with whom he had rowed on the Thames and played in the cloister, and refused to believe that so good-tempered a fellow could have done anything very wrong. His own life had been spent in praying, musing, and rhyming among the water-lilies of the Ouse. He had preserved in no common measure the innocence of childhood. His spirit had indeed been severely tried, but not by temptations which impelled him to any gross violation of the rules of social morality.
- 20 He had never been attacked by combinations of powerful and deadly enemies. He had never been compelled to make a choice between innocence and greatness, between crime and ruin. Firmly as he held in theory the doctrine of human depravity, his habits were such that he was unable to conceive how far from the path of right even kind and noble natures may be hurried by the rage of conflict and the lust of dominion.

Hastings had another associate at Westminster of whom we shall have occasion to make frequent mention, Elijah

30 Impey. We know little about their school days. But, we think, we may safely venture to guess that whenever Hastings wished to play any trick more than usually naughty, he hired Impey with a tart or a ball to act as fag in the worst part of the prank.

Warren was distinguished among his comrades as an excellent swimmer, boatman and scholar. At fourteen he was first in the examination for the foundation. His name in gilded letters on the walls of the dormitory still attests his victory over many older competitors. He stayed two years

40 longer at the school, and was looking forward to a studentship at Christ Church, when an event happened which changed the whole course of his life. Howard Hastings died,

bequething his nephew to the care of a friend and distant relation, named Chiswick. This gentleman, though he did not absolutely refuse the charge, was desirous to rid himself of it as soon as possible. Dr. Nichols made strong remonstrances against the cruelty of interrupting the studies of a youth who seemed likely to be one of the first scholars of the age. He even offered to bear the expense of sending his favourite pupil to Oxford. But Mr. Chiswick was inflexible. He thought the years which had already been wasted on hexameters and pentameters quite sufficient. He had it in 10 his power to obtain for the lad a writership in the service of the East India Company. Whether the young adventurer, when once shipped off, made a fortune or died of a liver complaint, he equally ceased to be a burden to anybody. Warren was accordingly removed from Westminster school, and placed for a few months at a commercial academy, to study arithmetic and bookkeeping. In January, 1750, a few days after he had completed his seventeenth year, he sailed for Bengal, and arrived at his destination in the October following.

He was immediately placed at a desk in the Secretary's 20 officer at Calutta, and laboured there during two years. Fort William was then purely a commercial settlement. In the south of India the encroaching policy of Dupliex had transformed the servants of the English Company, against their will, into diplomatists and generals. The war of the succession was raging in the Carnatic; and the tide had been suddenly turned against the French by the genius of young Robert Clive. But in Bengal the European settlers, at peace with the natives and with each other, were wholly occupied with ledgers and bills of lading. 30

After two years passed in keeping accounts at Calcutta, Hastings was sent up the country to Cossimbazar, a town which lies on the Hooghly, about a mile from Moorshedabad, and which then bore to Moorshedabad a relation, if we may compare small things with great, such as the city of London bears to Westminster. Moorshesabad was the abode of the prince who by an authority ostensibly derived from the Mogul, but really independent, ruled the three great provinces of Bengal, Orissa, and Bahar. At Moorshedabad were the court, the harem, and the public offices. Cossim- 40 bazar was a port and a place of trade, renowned for the quantity and excellence of the silks which were sold in its

marts, and constantly receiving and sending forth fleets of richely-laden barges. At this important point the Company had established a small factory subordinate to that of Fort William. Here, during several years, Hastings was employed in making bargains for stuffs with native brokers. While he was thus engaged, Surajah Dowlah succeeded to the government, and declared war against the English. The defenceless settlement of Cossimbazar, lying close to the tyrant's capital, was instantly seized. Hastings was sent a prisoner to Moorshedabad, but in consequence of the humane intervention of the servants of the Dutch Company, was treated with indulgence. Meanwhile the Nabob marched on Calcutta; the governor and the commandant fled; the town and citadel were taken, and most of the English prisoners perished in the Black Hole.

In these events originated the greatness of Warren Hastings. The fugitive governor and his companions had taken refuge on the dreary islet of Fulda, near the mouth of the Hoogley. They were naturally desirous to obtain full information respecting the proceedings of the Nabob, and no person seemed so likely to furnish it as Hastings, who was a prisoner at large in the immediate neighbourhood of the court. He thus became a diplomatic agent, and soon established a high character for ability and resolution. The treason which at a later period was fatal to Surajah Dowlah was already in progress, and Hastings was admitted to the deliberations of the conspirators. But the time for striking had not arrived. It was necessary to postpone the execution of the design; and Hastings, who was now in extreme peril, fled to Fulda.

Soon after his arrival at Fulda, the expedition from Madras, commanded by Clive, appeared in the Hoogley. Warren, young, intrepid, and excited probably by the example of the Commander of the Forces, who, having like himself been a mercantile agent of the Company, had been turned by public calamities into a soldier, determined to serve in the ranks.

During the early operations of the war he carried a musket. But the quick eye of Clive soon perceived that the head of the young volunteer would be more useful than his arm. When, after the battle of Plassey, Meer Jaffier was proclaimed Nabob of Bengal, Hastings was appointed to reside at the court of the new prince as agent for the Company.

He remained at Moorshedabad till the year 1761, when he became a Member of Council, and was consequently forced to reside at Calcutta. This was during the interval between Clive's first and second administration, an interval which has left on the fame of the East India Company a stain, not wholly effaced by many years of just and humane government. Mr. Vansittart, the Governor, was at the head of a new and anomalous empire. On one side was a band of English functionaries, daring, intelligent, eager to be rich. On the other side was a great native population, helpless, 10 timid, accustomed to crouch under oppression. To keep the stronger race from preying on the weaker, was an undertaking which taxed to the utmost the talents and energy of Clive. Vansittart, with fair intentions, was a feeble and inefficient ruler. The master caste, as was natural, broke loose from all restraint; and then was seen what we believe to be the most frightful of all spectacles, the strength of civilization without its mercy. To all other despotism there is a check, imperfect, indeed, and liable to gross abuse, but still sufficient to preserve society from the last extreme of misery. A time 20 comes when the evils of submission are obviously greater than those of resistance, when fear itself begets a sort of courage, when a convulsive burst of popular rage and despair warns tyrants not to presume too far on the patience of mankind. But against misgovernment such as then afflicted Bengal it was impossible to struggle. The superior intelligence and energy of the dominant class made their power irresistible. A war of Bengalees against Englishmen was like a war of sheep against wolves, of men against demons. The only protection which the conquered could find was in the moder- 30 ation, the clemency, the enlarged policy of the conquerors. That protection, at a later period, they found. But at first English power came among them unaccompanied by English morality. There was an interval between the time at which they became our subjects and the time at which we began to reflect that we were bound to discharge towards them the duties of rulers. During that interval the business of a servant of the Company was simply to wring out of the natives a hundred or two hundred thousand pounds as speedily as possible, that he might return home before his constitution 40 had suffered from the heat, to marry a peer's daughter, to buy rotten boroughs in Cornwall, and to give balls in St.

James's Square. Of the conduct of Hastings at this time little is known; but the little that is known, and the circumstance that little is known, must be considered as honourable to him. He could not protect the natives; all that he could do was to abstain from plundering and oppressing them, and this he appears to have done. It is certain that at this time he continued poor; and it is equally certain that by cruelty and dishonesty he might easily have become rich. It is certain that he was never charged with having borne a share in the worst abuses which then prevailed; and it is almost equally certain that, if he had borne a share in those abuses, the able and bitter enemies who afterwards persecuted him would not have failed to discover and to proclaim his guilt. The keen, severe, and even malevolent scrutiny to which his whole public life was subjected, a scrutiny unparalleled, as we believe, in the history of mankind, is in one respect advantageous to his reputation. It brought many lamentable blemishes to light, but it entitles him to be considered pure from every blemish which has not been brought to light.

The truth is, that the temptations to which so many English functionaries yielded in the time of Mr. Vansittart were not temptations addressed to the ruling passions of Warren Hastings. He was not squeamish in pecuniary transactions; but he was neither sordid nor rapacious. He was far too enlightened a man to look on a great empire merely as a buccaneer would look on a galleon. Had his heart been much worse than it was, his understanding would have preserved him from that extremity of baseness. He was an unscrupulous, perhaps an unprincipled statesman; but still he was a statesman, and not a freebater.

In 1764 Hastings returned to England. He had realized only a very moderate fortune; and that moderate fortune was soon reduced to nothing, partly by his praiseworthy liberality, and partly by his mismanagement. Towards his relations he appears to have acted very generously. The greater part of his savings he left in Bengal, hoping probably to obtain the high usury of India; but high usury and bad security generally go together, and Hastings lost both interest and principal.

He remained four years in England. Of his life at that time very little is known. But it has been asserted, and is highly probable, that liberal studies and the society of men

of letters occupied a great part of his time. It is to be remembered to his honour that, in days when the languages of the East were regarded by other servants of the Company merely as the means of communicating with weavers and money-changers, his enlarged and accomplished mind sought in Asiatic learning for new forms of intellectual enjoyment, and for new views of government and society. Perhaps, like most persons who have paid much attention to departments of knowledge which lie out of the common track, he was inclined to overrate the value of his favourite studies. He 10 conceived that the cultivation of Persian literature might with advantage be made a part of the liberal education of an English gentleman; and he drew up a plan with that view. It is said that the University of Oxford, in which Oriental learning had never, since the revival of letters, been wholly neglected, was to be the seat of the institution which he contemplated. An endowment was expected from the munificence of the Company; and professors thoroughly competent to interpret Hafiz and Ferdusi were to be engaged in the East. Hastings called on Johnson, with the hope, as it 20 should seem, of interesting in this project a man who enjoyed the highest literary reputation, and who was particularly connected with Oxford. The interview appears to have left on Johnson's mind a most favourable impression of the talents and attainments of his visitor. Long after, when Hastings was ruling the immense population of British India, the old philosopher wrote to him, and referred in the most courtly terms, though with great dignity, to their short but agreeable intercourse.

Hastings soon began to look again towards India. He had 30 little to attach him to England; and his pecuniary embarrassments were great. He solicited his old masters the Directors for employment. They acceded to his request, with high compliments both to his abilities and to his integrity, and appointed him a Member of Council at Madras. It would be unjust not to mention that, though forced to borrow money for his outfit, he did not withdraw any portion of the sum which he had appropriated to the relief of his distressed relations. In the spring of 1769 he embarked on board of the Duke of Grafton, and commenced a voyage distinguished by 40 incidents which might furnish matter for a novel.

Among the passengers in the Duke of Grafton was a Ger-

man of the name of Imhoff. He called himself a Baron ; but he was in distressed circumstances, and was going out to Madras as a portrait-painter, in the hope of picking up some of the pagodas which were then lightly got and as lightly spent by the English in India. The Baron was accompanied by his wife, a native, we have somewhere read, of Archangel. This young woman, who, born under the Arctic circle, was destined to play the part of a Queen under the tropic of Cancer, had an agreeable person, a cultivated mind, and manners in the highest degree engaging. She despised her husband heartily, and, as the story which we have to tell sufficiently proves, not without reason. She was interested by the conversation and flattered by the attentions of Hastings. The situation was indeed perilous. No place is so propitious to the formation of either close friendships or of deadly enmities as an Indiaman. There are very few people who do not find a voyage which lasts several months insupportably dull. Anything is welcome which may break that long monotony—a sail, a shark, an albatross, a man overboard. Most passengers find some resource in eating twice as many meals as on land. But the great devices for killing the time are quarrelling and flirting. The facilities for both these exciting pursuits are great. The inmates of the ship are thrown together far more than in any country-seat or boarding-house. None can escape from the rest except by imprisoning himself in a cell in which he can hardly turn. All food, all exercise, is taken in company. Ceremony is to a great extent banished. It is every day in the power of a mischievous person to inflict innumerable annoyances. It is every day in the power of an amiable person to confer little services. It not seldom happens that serious distress and danger call forth, in genuine beauty and deformity, heroic virtues and abject vices which, in the ordinary intercourse of good society, might remain during many years unknown even to intimate associates. Under such circumstances met Warren Hastings and the Baroness Imhoff, two persons whose accomplishments would have attracted notice in any court of Europe. The gentleman had no domestic ties. The lady was tied to a husband for whom she had no regard, and who had no regard for his own honour. An attachment sprang up, which was soon strengthened by events such as could hardly have occurred on land. Hastings fell ill. The Baroness nursed him with womanly

tenderness, gave him his medicines with her own hand, and even sat up in his cabin while he slept. Long before the Duke of Grafton reached Madras, Hastings was in love. But his love was of a most characteristic description. Like his hatred, like his ambition, like all his passions, it was strong, but not impetuous. It was calm, deep, earnest, patient of delay, unconquerable by time. Imhoff was called into council by his wife and his wife's lover. It was arranged that the Baronness should institute a suit for a divorce in the courts of Franconia, that the Baron should afford every facility to the proceeding, and that, during the years which might elapse before the sentence should be pronounced, they should continue to live together. It was also agreed that Hastings should bestow some very substantial marks of gratitude on the complaisant husband, and should, when the marriage was dissolved, make the lady his wife, and adopt the children whom she had already borne to Imhoff. 10

At Madras, Hastings found the trade of the Company in a very disorganized state. His own tastes would have led him rather to political than to commercial pursuits; but he knew 20 that the favour of his employers depended chiefly on their dividends, and that their dividends depended chiefly on the investment. He, therefore, with great judgment, determined to apply his vigorous mind for a time to this department of business, which had been much neglected, since the servants of the Company had ceased to be clerks, and had become warriors and negotiators.

In a very few months he effected an important reform. The Directors notified to him their high approbation, and were so much pleased with his conduct that they determined 30 to place him at the head of the Government of Bengal. Early in 1772 he quitted Fort St. George for his new post. The Imhoffs, who were still man and wife, accompanied him, and lived at Calcutta on the same plan which they had already followed during more than two years.

When Hastings took his seat at the head of the Council Board, Bengal was still governed according to the system which Clive had devised, a system which was, perhaps, skilfully contrived for the purpose of facilitating and concealing a great revolution, but which, when that revolution was 40 complete and irrevocable, could produce nothing but inconvenience. There were two governments, the real and the

ostensible. The supreme power belonged to the Company, and was in truth the most despotic power that can be conceived. The only restraint on the English masters of the country was that which their own justice and humanity imposed on them. There was no constitutional check on their will, and resistance to them was utterly hopeless.

But though thus absolute in reality, the English had not yet assumed the style of sovereignty. They held their territories as vassals of the throne of Delhi; they raised their
10 revenues as collectors appointed by the imperial commission; their public seal was inscribed with the imperial titles; and their mint struck only the imperial coin.

There was still a Nabob of Bengal, who stood to the English rulers of his country in the same relation in which Augustulus stood to Odoacer, or the last Merovingians to Charles Martel and Pepin. He lived at Moorshedabad, surrounded by princely magnificence. He was approached with outward marks of reverence, and his name was used in public instruments. But in the government of the country he had
20 less real share than the youngest writer or cadet in the Company's service.

The English Council which represented the Company at Calcutta was constituted on a very different plan from that which has since been adopted. At present the Governor is, as to all executive measures, absolute. He can declare war, conclude peace, appoint public functionaries or remove them, in opposition to the unanimous sense of those who sit with him in Council. They are, indeed, entitled to know all that is done, to discuss all that is done, to advise, to remonstrate,
30 to send protests to England. But it is with the Governor that the supreme power resides, and on him that the whole responsibility rests. This system, which was introduced by Mr. Pitt and Mr. Dundas, in spite of the strenuous opposition of Mr. Burke, we conceive to be on the whole the best that was ever devised for the government of a country where no materials can be found for a representative constitution. In the time of Hastings the Governor had only one vote in council, and, in case of an equal division, a casting vote. It therefore happened not unfrequently that he was overruled
40 on the gravest questions; and it was possible that he might be wholly excluded, for years together, from the real direction of public affairs.

The English functionaries at Fort William had as yet paid little or no attention to the internal government of Bengal. The only branch of politics about which they much busied themselves was negotiation with the native princes. The police, the administration of justice, the details of the collection of revenue, were almost entirely neglected. We may remark that the phraseology of the Company's servants still bears the traces of this state of things. To this day they always use the word "political" as synonymous with "diplomatic." We could name a gentleman still living, who was described by the highest authority as an invaluable public servant, eminently fit to be at the head of the internal administration of a whole presidency, but unfortunately quite ignorant of all political business. 10

The internal government of Bengal the English rulers delegated to a great native minister, who was stationed at Moorshedabad. All military affairs, and, with the exception of what pertains to mere ceremonial, all foreign affairs, were withdrawn from his control; but the other departments of the administration were entirely confided to him. His own stipend amounted to nearly a hundred thousand pounds sterling a year. The personal allowance of the Nabob, amounting to more than three hundred thousand pounds a year, passed through the minister's hands, and was, to a great extent, at his disposal. The collection of the revenue, the administration of justice, the maintenance of order, were left to this high functionary; and for the exercise of his immense power he was responsible to none but the British masters of the country. 20

A situation so important, lucrative, and splendid was naturally an object of ambition to the ablest and most powerful natives. Clive had found it difficult to decide between conflicting pretensions. Two candidates stood out prominently from the crowd, each of them the representative of a race and of a religion. 30

One of these was Mahommed Reza Khan, a Mussulman of Persian extraction, able, active, religious after the fashion of his people, and highly esteemed by them. In England he might perhaps have been regarded as a corrupt and greedy politician. But, tried by the lower standard of Indian morality, he might be considered as a man of integrity and honour. 40

His competitor was a Hindoo Brahmin, whose name has, by a terrible and melancholy event, been inseparably associated with that of Warren Hastings, the Maharajah Nuncomar. This man had played an important part in all the revolutions which, since the time of Surajah Dowlah, had taken place in Bengal. To the consideration which in that country belongs to high and pure caste, he added the weight which is derived from wealth, talents and experience. Of his moral character it is difficult to give a notion to those who are acquainted with human nature only as it appears in our island. What the Italian is to the Englishman, what the Hindoo is to the Italian, what the Bengalee is to other Hindoos, that was Nuncomar to other Bengalees. The physical organization of the Bengalee is feeble even to effeminacy. He lives in a constant vapour bath. His pursuits are sedentary, his limbs delicate, his movements languid. During many ages he has been trampled upon by men of bolder and more hardy breeds. Courage, independence, veracity, are qualities to which his constitution and his situation are equally unfavourable. His mind bears a singular analogy to his body. It is weak even to helplessness for purposes of manly resistance; but its suppleness and its tact move the children of sterner climates to admiration not unmingled with contempt. All those arts which are the natural defence of the weak are more familiar to this subtle race than to the Ionian of the time of Juvenal, or to the Jew of the dark ages. What the horns are to the buffalo, what the paw is to the tiger, what the sting is to the bee, what beauty, according to the old Greek song, is to woman, deceit is to the Bengalee. Large promises, smooth excuses, elaborate tissues of circumstantial falsehood, chicanery, perjury, forgery, are the weapons, offensive and defensive, of the people of the Lower Ganges. All those millions do not furnish one sepoy to the armies of the Company. But as usurers, as money-changers, as sharp legal practitioners, no class of human beings can bear a comparison with them. With all his softness, the Bengalee is by no means placable in his enmities or prone to pity. The pertinacity with which he adheres to his purposes yields only to the immediate pressure of fear. Nor does he lack a certain kind of courage which is often wanting to his masters. To inevitable evils he is sometimes found to oppose a passive fortitude, such as the Stoics attributed to their ideal sage. An

European warrior who rushes on a battery of cannon with a loud hurrah will sometimes shriek under the surgeon's knife, and fall into an agony of despair at the sentence of death. But the Bengalee, who would see his country overrun, his house laid in ashes, his children murdered or dishonoured, without having the spirit to strike one blow, has yet been known to endure torture with the firmness of Mucius, and to mount the scaffold with the steady step and even pulse of Algernon Sidney.

In Nuncomar the national character was strongly and with 10 exaggeration personified. The Company's servants had repeatedly detected him in the most criminal intrigues. On one occasion he brought a false charge against another Hindoo, and tried to substantiate it by producing forged documents. On another occasion it was discovered that, while professing the strongest attachment to the English, he was engaged in several conspiracies against them, and in particular that he was the medium of a correspondence between the Court of Delhi and the French authorities in the Carnatic. For these and similar practices he had been long detained in 20 confinement. But his talents and influence had not only procured his liberation, but had obtained for him a certain degree of consideration even among the British rulers of his country.

Clive was extremely unwilling to place a Mussulman at the head of the administration of Bengal. On the other hand, he could not bring himself to confer immense power on a man to whom every sort of villainy had repeatedly been brought home. Therefore, though the Nabob, over whom Nuncomar had by intrigue acquired great influence, begged that the art- 30 ful Hindoo might be intrusted with the government, Clive, after some hesitation, decided honestly and wisely in favour of Mahommed Reza Khan. When Hastings became Governor, Mahommed Reza Khan had held power seven years. An infant son of Meer Jaffier was now Nabob; and the guardianship of the young prince's person had been confided to the minister.

Nuncomar, stimulated at once by cupidity and malice, had been constantly attempting to hurt the reputation of his successful rival. This was not difficult. The revenues of 40 Bengal, under the administration established by Clive, did not yield such a surplus as had been anticipated by the

Company; for at that time the most absurd notions were entertained in England respecting the wealth of India. Palaces of porphyry, hung with the richest brocade, heaps of pearls and diamonds, vaults from which pagodas and gold mohurs were measured out by the bushel, filled the imagination even of men of business. Nobody seemed to be aware of what nevertheless was most undoubtedly the truth, that India was a poorer country than countries which in Europe are reckoned poor—than Ireland, for example, or than Portugal. It was confidently believed by Lords of the Treasury and members for the City, that Bengal would not only defray its own charges, but would afford an increased dividend to the proprietors of India stock and large relief to the English finances. These absurd expectations were disappointed; and the Directors, naturally enough, chose to attribute the disappointment rather to the mismanagement of Mahommed Reza Khan than to their own ignorance of the country intrusted to their care. They were confirmed in their error by the agents of Nuncomar; for Nuncomar had agents even in
20 Leadenhall Street. Soon after Hastings reached Calcutta he received a letter addressed by the Court of Directors, not to the Council generally, but to himself in particular. He was directed to remove Mahommed Reza Khan, to arrest him together with all his family and all his partisans, and to institute a strict inquiry into the whole administration of the province. It was added that the Governor would do well to avail himself of the assistance of Nuncomar in the investigation. The vices of Nuncomar were acknowledged. But even from his vices, it was said, much advantage might at
30 such a conjuncture be derived; and, though he could not safely be trusted, it might still be proper to encourage him by hopes of reward.

The Governor bore no good will to Nuncomar. Many years before they had known each other at Moorshedabad; and then a quarrel had arisen between them which all the authority of their superiors could hardly compose. Widely as they differed in most points, they resembled each other in this, that both were men of unforgiving natures. To Mahommed Reza Khan, on the other hand, Hastings had no
40 feelings of hostility. Nevertheless he proceeded to execute the instructions of the Company with an alacrity which he never showed except when instructions were in perfect

conformity with his own views. He had, wisely as we think, determined to get rid of the system of double government in Bengal. The orders of the Directors furnished him with the means of effecting his purpose, and dispensed him from the necessity of discussing the matter with his Council. He took his measures with his usual vigour and dexterity. At midnight the palace of Mahommed Reza Khan at Moorshe-
dabad was surrounded by a battalion of sepoys. The minister was roused from his slumbers and informed that he was a prisoner. With the Mussulman gravity, he bent his head 10
and submitted himself to the will of God. He fell not alone. A chief named Schitab Roy had been entrusted with the government of Bahar. His valour and his attachment to the English had more than once been signally proved. On that memorable day on which the people of Patna saw from their walls the whole army of the Mogul scattered by the little band of Captain Knox, the voice of the British conquerors assigned the palm of gallantry to the brave Asiatic. "I never," said Knox, when he introduced Schitab Roy, covered with blood and dust, to the English functionaries assembled 20
in the factory, "I never saw a native fight so before," Schitab Roy was involved in the ruin of Mahommed Reza Khan, was removed from office, and was placed under arrest. The members of the Council received no intimation of these measures till the prisoners were on their road to Calcutta.

The inquiry into the conduct of the minister was postponed on different pretences. He was detained in an easy confinement during many months. In the meantime, the great revolution which Hastings had planned was carried into effect. The office of minister was abolished. The internal 30
administration was transferred to the servants of the Company. A system—a very imperfect system, it is true—of civil and criminal justice, under English superintendence, was established. The Nabob was no longer to have even an ostensible share in the government; but he was still to receive a considerable annual allowance, and to be surrounded with the state of sovereignty. As he was an infant, it was necessary to provide guardians for his person and property. His person was intrusted to a lady of his father's harem, known by the name of the Munny Begum. The office of 40
treasurer of the household was bestowed on a son of Nuncomar, named Goordas. Nuncomar's services were wanted;

yet he could not safely be trusted with power, and Hastings thought it a masterstroke of policy to reward the able and unprincipled parent by promoting the inoffensive child.

The revolution completed, the double government dissolved, the Company installed in the full sovereignty of Bengal, Hastings had no motive to treat the late ministers with rigour. Their trial had been put off on various pleas till the new organization was complete. They were then brought before a committee, over which the Governor presided.

10 Schitab Roy was speedily acquitted with honour. A formal apology was made to him for the restraint to which he had been subjected. All the Eastern marks of respect were bestowed on him. He was clothed in a robe of state, presented with jewels and with a richly harnessed elephant, and sent back to his government at Patna. But his health had suffered from confinement; his high spirit had been cruelly wounded; and soon after his liberation he died of a broken heart.

The innocence of Mahommed Reza Khan was not so clearly 20 established. But the Governor was not disposed to deal harshly. After a long hearing, in which Nuncomar appeared as the accuser, and displayed both the art and the inveterate rancour which distinguished him, Hastings pronounced that the charge had not been made out, and ordered the fallen minister to be set at liberty.

Nuncomar had purposed to destroy the Mussulman administration, and to rise on its ruin. Both his malevolence and his cupidity had been disappointed. Hastings had made him a tool, had used him for the purpose of accomplishing the 30 transfer of the government from Moorshedabad to Calcutta, from native to European hands. The rival, the enemy, so long envied, so implacably persecuted, had been dismissed unhurt. The situation so long and ardently desired had been abolished. It was natural that the Governor should be from that time an object of the most intense hatred to the vindictive Brahmin. As yet, however, it was necessary to suppress such feelings. The time was coming when that long animosity was to end in a desperate and deadly struggle.

In the meantime Hastings was compelled to turn his atten- 40 tion to foreign affairs. The object of his diplomacy was at this time simply to get money. The finances of his government were in an embarrassed state, and this embarrassment

he was determined to relieve by some means, fair or foul. The principle which directed all his dealings with his neighbours is fully expressed by the old motto of one of the great predatory families of Teviotdale, "Thou shalt want ere I want." He seems to have laid it down, as a fundamental proposition which could not be disputed, that, when he had not as many lacs of rupees as the public service required, he was to take them from anybody who had. One thing, indeed, is to be said in excuse for him. The pressure applied to him by his employers at home was such as only the highest virtue could have withstood, such as left him no choice except to commit great wrongs, or to resign his high post, and with that post all his hopes of fortune and distinction. The Directors, it is true, never enjoined or applauded any crime. Far from it. Whoever examines their letters written at that time will find there many just and humane sentiments, many excellent precepts—in short, an admirable code of political ethics. But every exhortation is modified or nullified by a demand for money. "Govern leniently, and send more money; practice strict justice and moderation towards neighbouring powers, and send more money;" this is, in truth, the sum of almost all the instructions that Hastings ever received from home. Now these instructions, being interpreted, mean simply, "Be the father and the oppressor of the people; be just and unjust, moderate and rapacious." The Directors dealt with India as the Church, in the good old times, dealt with a heretic. They delivered the victim over to the executioners, with an earnest request that all possible tenderness might be shown. We by no means accuse or suspect those who framed these despatches of hypocrisy. It is probable that, writing fifteen thousand miles from the place where their orders were to be carried into effect, they never perceived the gross inconsistency of which they were guilty. But the inconsistency was at once manifest to their viceroy at Calcutta, who, with an empty treasury, with an unpaid army, with his own salary often in arrear, with deficient crops, with government tenants daily running away, was called upon to remit home another half million without fail. Hastings saw that it was absolutely necessary for him to disregard either the moral discourses or the pecuniary requisitions of his employers. Being forced to disobey them in something, he had to consider what kind of disobedience

they would most readily pardon ; and he correctly judged that the safest course would be to neglect the sermons and to find the rupees.

A mind so fertile as his, and so little restrained by conscientious scruples, speedily discovered several modes of relieving the financial embarrassments of the government. The allowance of the Nabob of Bengal was reduced at a stroke from three hundred and twenty thousand pounds a year to half that sum. The Company had bound itself to pay near
10 three hundred thousand pounds a year to the Great Mogul, as a mark of homage for the provinces which he had intrusted to their care ; and they had ceded to him the districts of Corah and Allahabad. On the plea that the Mogul was not really independent, but merely a tool in the hands of others, Hastings determined to retract these concessions. He accordingly declared that the English would pay no more tribute, and sent troops to occupy Allahabad and Corah. The situation of these places was such that there would be little advantage and great expense in retaining them. Hast-
20 ings, who wanted money and not territory, determined to sell them. A purchaser was not wanting. The rich province of Oude had, in the general dissolution of the Mogul Empire, fallen to the share of the great Mussulman house by which it is still governed. About twenty years ago, this house, by the permission of the British Government, assumed the royal title ; but in the time of Warren Hastings such an assumption would have been considered by the Mahommedans of India as a monstrous impiety. The Prince of Oude, though he held the power, did not venture to use the style of sover-
30 eignty. To the appellation of Nabob or Viceroy, he added that of Vizier of the monarchy of Hindostan, just as in the last century the Electors of Saxony and Brandenburg, though independent of the Emperor and often in arms against him, were proud to style themselves his Grand Chamberlain and Grand Marshal. Sujah Dowlah, then Nabob Vizier, was on excellent terms with the English. He had a large treasure. Allahabad and Corah were so situated that they might be of use to him, and could be of none to the Company. The buyer and seller soon came to an understanding ; and the provinces
40 which had been torn from the Mogul were made over to the government of Oude for about half a million sterling.

But there was another matter still more important to be

settled by the Vizier and the Governor. The fate of a brave people was to be decided. It was decided in a manner which has left a lasting stain on the fame of Hastings and of England.

The people of Central Asia had always been to the inhabitants of India what the warriors of the German forests were to the subjects of the decaying monarchy of Rome. The dark, slender, and timid Hindoo shrank from a conflict with the strong muscle and resolute spirit of the fair race which dwelt beyond the passes. There is reason to believe that, at 10 a period anterior to the dawn of regular history, the people who spoke the rich and flexible Sanscrit came from regions lying far beyond the Hyphasis and the Hystaspes, and imposed their yoke on the children of the soil. It is certain that during the last ten centuries a succession of invaders descended from the west on Hindostan ; nor was the course of conquest ever turned back towards the setting sun till that memorable campaign in which the cross of Saint George was planted on the walls of Ghizni.

The Emperors of Hindostan themselves came from the 20 other side of the great mountain ridge ; and it had always been their practice to recruit their army from the hardy and valiant race from which their own illustrious house sprang. Among the military adventurers who were allured to the Mogul standards from the neighbourhood of Cabul and Candahar were conspicuous several gallant bands, known by the name of the Rohillas. Their services had been rewarded with large tracts of land, fiefs of the spear, if we may use an expression drawn from an analogous state of things, in that fertile plain through which the Ramgunga flows from the 30 snowy heights of Kumaon to join the Ganges. In the general confusion which followed the death of Aurungzebee, the warlike colony became virtually independent. The Rohillas were distinguished from the other inhabitants of India by a peculiarly fair complexion. They were more honourably distinguished by courage in war and by skill in the arts of peace. While anarchy raged from Lahore to Cape Comorin, their little territory enjoyed the blessings of repose under the guardianship of valour. Agriculture and commerce flourished among them ; nor were they negligent of rhetoric and poetry. 40 Many persons now living have heard aged men talk with regret

of the golden days when the Afghan princes ruled in the vale of Rohilcund.

Sujah Dowlah had set his heart on adding this rich district to his own principality. Right, or show of right, he had absolutely none. His claim was in no respect better founded than that of Catherine to Poland, or that of the Bonaparte family to Spain. The Rohillas held their country by exactly the same title by which he held his, and had governed their country far better than his had ever been governed. Nor
 10 were they a people whom it was perfectly safe to attack. Their land was indeed an open plain, destitute of natural defences ; but their veins were full of the high blood of Afghanistan. As soldiers, they had not the steadiness which is seldom found except in company with strict discipline ; but their impetuous valour had been proved on many fields of battle. It was said that their chiefs, when united by common peril, could bring eighty thousand men into the field. Sujah Dowlah had himself seen them fight, and wisely shrank from a conflict with them. There was in India one army, and
 20 only one, against which even those proud Caucasian tribes could not stand. It had been abundantly proved that neither tenfold odds, nor the martial ardour of the boldest Asiatic nations, could avail aught against English science and resolution. Was it possible to induce the Governor of Bengal to let out to hire the irresistible energies of the Imperial people, the skill against which the ablest chiefs of Hindostan were helpless as infants, the discipline which had so often triumphed over the frantic struggles of fanaticism and despair, the unconquerable British courage which is never so sedate and
 30 stubborn as towards the close of a doubtful and murderous day ?

This was what the Nabob Vizier asked, and what Hastings granted. A bargain was soon struck. Each of the negotiators had what the other wanted. Hastings was in need of funds to carry on the government of Bengal and to send remittances to London, and Sujah Dowlah had an ample revenue. Sujah Dowlah was bent on subjugating the Rohillas, and Hastings had at his disposal the only force by which the Rohillas could be subjugated. It was agreed that an
 40 English army should be lent to the Nabob Vizier, and that for the loan he should pay four hundred thousand pounds

sterling, besides defraying all the charge of the troops while employed in his service.

“ I really cannot see,” says Mr. Gleig, “ upon what grounds, either of political or moral justice, this proposition deserves to be stigmatized as infamous.” If we understand the meaning of words, it is infamous to commit a wicked action for hire, and it is wicked to engage in war without provocation. In this particular war scarcely one aggravating circumstance was wanting. The object of the Rohilla war was this : to deprive a large population, who had never done us the least 10 harm, of a good government, and to place them, against their will, under an execrably bad one. Nay, even this is not all. England now descended far below the level even of those petty German princes who, about the same time, sold us troops to fight the Americans. The hussar-mongers of Hesse and Anspach had at least the assurance that the expeditions on which their soldiers were to be employed would be conducted in conformity with the humane rules of civilized warfare. Was the Rohilla war likely to be so conducted? Did the Governor stipulate that it should be so conducted? He 20 well knew what Indian warfare was. He well knew that the power which he covenanted to put into Sujah Dowlah’s hands would, in all probability, be atrociously abused ; and he required no guarantee, no promise, that it should not be so abused. He did not even reserve to himself the right of withdrawing his aid in case of abuse, however gross. We are almost ashamed to notice Major Scott’s plea, that Hastings was justified in letting out English troops to slaughter the Rohillas, because the Rohillas were not of Indian race, but a colony from a distant country. What were the English 30 themselves? Was it for them to proclaim a crusade for the expulsion of all intruders from the countries watered by the Ganges? Did it lie in their mouths to contend that a foreign settler who establishes an empire in India is a *caput lupinum*? What would they have said if any other power had, on such a ground, attacked Madras or Calcutta without the slightest provocation? Such a defence was wanting to make the infamy of the transaction complete. The atrocity of the crime and the hypocrisy of the apology are worthy of each other.

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One of the three brigades of which the Bengal army consisted was sent under Colonel Champion to join Sujah

Dowlah's forces. The Rohillas expostulated, entreated, offered a large ransom, but in vain. They then resolved to defend themselves to the last. A bloody battle was fought. "The enemy," says Colonel Champion, "gave proof of a good share of military knowledge; and it is impossible to describe a more obstinate firmness of resolution than they displayed." The dastardly sovereign of Oude fled from the field. The English were left unsupported; but their fire and their charge were irresistible. It was not, however, till the
10 most distinguished chiefs had fallen, fighting bravely at the head of their troops, that the Rohilla ranks gave way. Then the Nabob Vizier and his rabble made their appearance, and hastened to plunder the camp of the valiant enemies, whom they had never dared to look in the face. The soldiers of the Company, trained in an exact discipline, kept unbroken order while the tents were pillaged by these worthless allies. But many voices were heard to exclaim, "We have had all the fighting, and those rogues are to have all the profit."

Then the horrors of Indian war were let loose on the fair
20 valleys and cities of Rohilcund. The whole country was in a blaze. More than a hundred thousand people fled from their homes to pestilential jungles, preferring famine and fever and the haunts of tigers to the tyranny of him to whom an English and a Christian Government had, for shameful lucre, sold their substance, and their blood, and the honour of their wives and daughters. Colonel Champion remonstrated with the Nabob Vizier, and sent strong representations to Fort William; but the Governor had made no conditions as to the mode in which the war was to be carried
30 on. He had troubled himself about nothing but his forty lacs; and, though he might disapprove of Sujah Dowlah's wanton barbarity, he did not think himself entitled to interfere, except by offering advice. This delicacy excites the admiration of the biographer. "Mr. Hastings," he says, "could not himself dictate to the Nabob, nor permit the commander of the Company's troops to dictate how the war was to be carried on." No, to be sure. Mr. Hastings had only to put down by main force the brave struggles of innocent men fighting for their liberty. Their military resistance
50 crushed, his duties ended; and he had then only to fold his arms and look on while their villages were burned, their children butchered, and their women violated. Will Mr.

Gleig seriously maintain this opinion? Is any rule more plain than this, that whoever voluntarily gives to another irresistible power over human beings is bound to take order that such power shall not be barbarously abused? But we beg pardon of our readers for arguing a point so clear.

We hasten to the end of this sad and disgraceful story. The war ceased. The finest population in India was subjected to a greedy, cowardly, cruel tyrant. Commerce and agriculture languished. The rich province which had tempted the cupidity of Sujah Dowlah became the most miserable part 10 even of his miserable dominions. Yet is the injured nation not extinct. At long intervals gleams of its ancient spirit have flashed forth; and even at this day valour and self-respect and a chivalrous feeling rare among Asiatics, and a bitter remembrance of the great crime of England, distinguish that noble Afghan race. To this day they are regarded as the best of all sepoys at the cold steel; and it was very recently remarked by one who had enjoyed great opportunities of observation that the only natives of India to whom the word "gentleman" can with perfect propriety be applied 20 are to be found among the Rohillas.

Whatever we may think of the morality of Hastings, it cannot be denied that the financial results of his policy did honour to his talents. In less than two years after he assumed the government, he had, without imposing any additional burdens on the people subject to his authority, added about four hundred and fifty thousand pounds to the annual income of the Company, besides procuring about a million in ready money. He had also relieved the finances of Bengal from military expenditure, amounting to near a quarter of a 30 million a year, and had thrown that charge on the Nabob of Oude. There can be no doubt that this was a result which, if it had been obtained by honest means, would have entitled him to the warmest gratitude of his country, and which, by whatever means obtained, proved that he possessed great talents for administration.

In the meantime Parliament had been engaged in long and grave discussions on Asiatic affairs. The ministry of Lord North, in the session of 1773, introduced a measure which made a considerable change in the constitution of the Indian 40 government. This law, known by the name of the Regulating Act, provided that the presidency of Bengal should exer-

cise a control over the other possessions of the Company ; that the chief of that presidency should be styled Governor-General ; that he should be assisted by four Councillors ; and that a Supreme Court of Judicature, consisting of a chief justice and three inferior judges, should be established at Calcutta. This Court was made independent of the Governor-General and Council, and was intrusted with a civil and criminal jurisdiction of immense and, at the same time, of undefined extent.

- 10 The Governor-General and Councillors were named in the Act, and were to hold their situations for five years. Hastings was to be the first Governor-General. One of the four new Councillors, Mr. Barwell, an experienced servant of the Company, was then in India. The other three, General Clavering, Mr. Mouson, and Mr. Francis, were sent out from England.

The ablest of the new Councillors was, beyond all doubt, Philip Francis. His acknowledged compositions prove that he possessed considerable eloquence and information. Several
20 years passed in the public offices had formed him to habits of business. His enemies have never denied that he had a fearless and manly spirit ; and his friends, we are afraid, must acknowledge that his estimate of himself was extravagantly high, that his temper was irritable, that his deportment was often rude and petulant, and that his hatred was of intense bitterness and long duration.

It is scarcely possible to mention this eminent man without adverting for a moment to the question which his name at once suggests to every mind. Was he the author of the Let-
30 ters of Junius? Our own firm belief is that he was. The evidence is, we think, such as would support a verdict in a civil, nay, in a criminal proceeding. The handwriting of Junius is the very peculiar handwriting of Francis, slightly disguised. As to the position, pursuits, and connections of Junius, the following are the most important facts which can be considered as clearly proved :—First, that he was acquainted with the technical forms of the Secretary of State's office ; secondly, that he was intimately acquainted with the business of the War Office ; thirdly, that he, during the year
40 1770, attended debates in the House of Lords, and took notes of speeches, particularly of the speeches of Lord Chatham ; fourthly, that he bitterly resented the appointment of Mr.

Chamier to the place of Deputy Secretary-at-War; fifthly, that he was bound by some strong tie to the first Lord Holland. Now, Francis passed some years in the Secretary of State's office. He was subsequently chief clerk of the War Office. He repeatedly mentioned that he had himself, in 1770, heard speeches of Lord Chatham; and some of these speeches were actually printed from his notes. He resigned his clerkship at the War Office from resentment at the appointment of Mr. Chamier. It was by Lord Holland that he was first introduced into the public service. Now, here are 10 five marks, all of which ought to be found in Junius. They are all five found in Francis. We do not believe that more than two of them can be found in any other person whatever. If this argument does not settle the question, there is an end of all reasoning on circumstantial evidence.

The internal evidence seems to us to point the same way. The style of Francis bears a strong resemblance to that of Junius; nor are we disposed to admit, what is generally taken for granted, that the acknowledged compositions of Francis are very decidedly inferior to the anonymous letters. 20 The argument from inferiority, at all events, is one which may be urged with at least equal force against every claimant that has ever been mentioned, with the single exception of Burke; and it would be a waste of time to prove that Burke was not Junius. And what conclusion, after all, can be drawn from mere inferiority? Every writer must produce his best work; and the interval between his best work and his second best work may be very wide indeed. Nobody will say that the best letters of Junius are more decidedly superior to the acknowledged works of Francis than three or four of 30 Corneille's tragedies to the rest, than three or four of Ben Jonson's comedies to the rest, than the Pilgrim's Progress to the other works of Bunyan, than Don Quixote to the other works of Cervantes. Nay, it is certain that Junius, whoever he may have been, was a most unequal writer. To go no further than the letters which bear the signature of Junius; the letter to the King and the letters to Horne Tooke have little in common, except the asperity; and asperity was an ingredient seldom wanting either in the writings or in the speeches of Francis. 40

Indeed, one of the strongest reasons for believing that Francis was Junius is the moral resemblance between the two

men. It is not difficult, from the letters which, under various signatures, are known to have been written by Junius, and from his dealings with Woodfall and others, to form a tolerably correct notion of his character. He was clearly a man not destitute of real patriotism and magnanimity, a man whose vices were not of a sordid kind. But he must also have been a man in the highest degree arrogant and insolent, a man prone to malevolence, and prone to the error of mistaking his malevolence for public virtue. “Doest thou well
10 to be angry?” was the question asked in old time of the Hebrew prophet. And he answered, “I do well.” This was evidently the temper of Junius; and to this cause we attribute the savage cruelty which disgraces several of his letters. No man is so merciless as he who, under a strong self-delusion, confounds his antipathies with his duties. It may be added that Junius, though allied with the democratic party by common enmities, was the very opposite of a very democratic politician. While attacking individuals with a ferocity which perpetually violated all the laws of literary warfare,
20 he regarded the most defective parts of old institutions with a respect amounting to pedantry, pleaded the cause of Old Sarum with fervour, and contemptuously told the capitalists of Manchester and Leeds that if they wanted votes they might buy land and become freeholders of Lancashire and Yorkshire. All this, we believe, might stand, with scarcely any change, for a character of Philip Francis.

It is not strange that the great anonymous writer should have been willing at that time to leave the country which had been so powerfully stirred by his eloquence. Everything
30 had gone against him. That party which he clearly preferred to every other, the party of George Grenville, had been scattered by the death of its chief; and Lord Suffolk had led the greater part of it over to the ministerial benches. The ferment produced by the Middlesex election had gone down. Every faction must have been alike an object of aversion to Junius. His opinions on domestic affairs separated him from the Ministry; his opinions on colonial affairs from the Opposition. Under such circumstances, he had thrown down his pen in misanthropical despair. His farewell letter to Wood-
40 fall bears date the nineteenth of January, 1773. In that letter he declared that he must be an idiot to write again; that he had meant well by the cause and the public; that

both were given up ; that there were not ten men who would act steadily together on any question. " But it is all alike," he added, " vile and contemptible. You have never flinched that I know of ; and I shall always rejoice to hear of your prosperity." These were the last words of Junius. In a year from that time Philip Francis was on his voyage to Bengal.

With the three new Councillors came out the judges of the Supreme Court. The Chief Justice was Sir Elijah Impey. He was an old acquaintance of Hastings ; and it is probable 10 that the Governor-General, if he had searched through all the inns of court, could not have found an equally serviceable tool. But the members of Council were by no means in an obsequious mood. Hastings greatly disliked the new form of Government, and had no very high opinion of his coadjutors. They had heard of this, and were disposed to be suspicious and punctilious. When men are in such a frame of mind, any trifle is sufficient to give occasion to dispute. The members of Council expected a salute of twenty-one guns from the batteries of Fort William. Hastings allowed them only 20 seventeen. They landed in ill-humour. The first civilities were exchanged with cold reserve. On the morrow commenced that long quarrel which, after distracting British India, was renewed in England, and in which all the most eminent statesmen and orators of the age took active part on one or the other side.

Hastings was supported by Barwell. They had not always been friends. But the arrival of the new members of Council from England naturally had the effect of uniting the old servants of the Company. Clavering, Monson, and Francis 30 formed the majority. They instantly wrested the government out of the hands of Hastings, condemned, certainly not without justice, his late dealings with the Nabob Vizier, recalled the English agent from Oude and sent thither a creature of their own, ordered the brigade which had conquered the unhappy Rohillas to return to the Company's territories, and instituted a severe inquiry into the conduct of the war. Next, in spite of the Governor-General's remonstrances, they proceeded to exercise, in the most indiscreet manner, their new authority over the subordinate presidencies ; threw all 40 the affairs of Bombay into confusion ; and interfered with an incredible union of rashness and feebleness, in the intestine

disputes of the Mahratta government. At the same time they fell on the internal administration of Bengal, and attacked the whole fiscal and judicial system, a system which was undoubtedly defective, but which it was very improbable that gentlemen fresh from England would be competent to amend. The effect of their reforms was that all protection to life and property was withdrawn, and that gangs of robbers plundered and slaughtered with impunity in the very suburbs of Calcutta. Hastings continued to live in the Government

10 House, and to draw the salary of Governor-General. He continued even to take the lead at the Council Board in the transaction of ordinary business ; for his opponents could not but feel that he knew much of which they were ignorant, and that he decided, both surely and speedily, many questions which to them would have been hopelessly puzzling. But the higher powers of government and the most valuable patronage had been taken from him.

The natives soon found this out. They considered him as a fallen man, and they acted after their kind. Some of our

20 readers may have seen, in India, a crowd of crows pecking a sick vulture to death—no bad type of what happens in that country as often as fortune deserts one who has been great and dreaded. In an instant all the sycophants who had lately been ready to lie for him, to forge for him, to pander for him, to poison for him, hasten to purchase the favour of his victorious enemies by accusing him. An Indian government has only to let it be understood that it wishes a particular man to be ruined, and in twenty-four hours it will be furnished with

30 grave charges, supported by depositions so full and circumstantial that any person unaccustomed to Asiatic mendacity would regard them as decisive. It is well if the signature of the destined victim is not counterfeited at the foot of some illegal compact, and if some treasonable paper is not slipped into a hiding-place in his house. Hastings was now regarded as helpless. The power to make or mar the fortune of every man in Bengal had passed, as it seemed, into the hands of the new Councillors. Immediately charges against the Governor-General began to pour in. They were eagerly welcomed by

40 the majority, who, to do them justice, were men of too much honour knowingly to countenance false accusations, but who were not sufficiently acquainted with the East to be aware that, in that part of the world, a very little encouragement

from power will call forth in a week more Oateses and Bedloes and Dangerfields than Westminster Hall sees in a century.

It would have been strange indeed if, at such a juncture, Nuncomar had remained quiet. That bad man was stimulated at once by malignity, by avarice, and by ambition. Now was the time to be avenged on his old enemy, to wreak a grudge of seventeen years, to establish himself in the favour of the majority of the Council, to become the greatest native in Bengal. From the time of the arrival of the new Councillors, 10 he had paid the most marked court to them, and had in consequence been excluded, with all indignity, from the Government-house. He now put into the hands of Francis, with great ceremony, a paper, containing several charges of the most serious description. By this document Hastings was accused of putting offices up to sale, and of receiving bribes for suffering offenders to escape. In particular, it was alleged that Mahommed Reza Khan had been dismissed with impunity, in consideration of a great sum paid to the Governor-General.

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Francis read the paper in Council. A violent altercation followed. Hastings complained in bitter terms of the way in which he was treated, spoke with contempt of Nuncomar and of Nuncomar's accusation, and denied the right of the Council to sit in judgment on the Governor. At the next meeting of the Board, another communication from Nuncomar was produced. He requested that he might be permitted to attend the Council, and that he might be heard in support of his assertions. Another tempestuous debate took place. The Governor-General maintained that the council-room was 30 not a proper place for such an investigation; that from persons who were heated by daily conflict with him he could not expect the fairness of judges; and that he could not, without betraying the dignity of his post, submit to be confronted with such a man as Nuncomar. The majority, however, resolved to go into the charges. Hastings rose, declared the sitting at an end, and left the room, followed by Barwell. The other members kept their seats, voted themselves a council, put Clavering in the chair, and ordered Nuncomar to be called in. Nuncomar not only adhered to the original charges, but, 40 after the fashion of the East, produced a large supplement. He stated that Hastings had received a great sum for appoint-

ing Rajah Goordas treasurer of the Nabob's household, and for committing the care of his Highness's person to the Munny Begum. He put in a letter purporting to bear the seal of the Munny Begum, for the purpose of establishing the truth of his story. The seal, whether forged, as Hastings affirmed, or genuine, as we are rather inclined to believe, proved nothing. Nuncomar, as everybody knows who knows India, had only to tell the Munny Begum that such a letter would give pleasure to the majority of the Council, in order to
10 procure her attestation. The majority, however, voted that the charge was made out; that Hastings had corruptly received between thirty and forty thousand pounds; and that he ought to be compelled to refund.

The general feeling among the English in Bengal was strongly in favour of the Governor-General. In talents for business, in knowledge of the country, in general courtesy of demeanour, he was decidedly superior to his persecutors. The servants of the Company were naturally disposed to side with the most distinguished member of their own body against
20 a clerk from the war office, who, profoundly ignorant of the native languages and of the native character, took on himself to regulate every department of the administration. Hastings, however, in spite of the general sympathy of his countrymen, was in a most painful situation. There was still an appeal to higher authority in England. If that authority took part with his enemies, nothing was left to him but to throw up his office. He accordingly placed his resignation in the hands of his agent in London, Colonel Maclean. But Maclean was instructed not to produce the resignation,
30 unless it should be fully ascertained that the feeling at the India House was adverse to the Governor-General.

The triumph of Nuncomar seemed to be complete. He held a daily levee, to which his countrymen resorted in crowds, and to which, on one occasion, the majority of the Council condescended to repair. His house was an office for the purpose of receiving charges against the Governor-General. It was said that, partly by threats, and partly by wheedling, the villainous Brahmin had induced many of the wealthiest men in the province to send in complaints. But he was play-
40 ing a perilous game. It was not safe to drive to despair a man of such resources and of such determination as Hastings. Nuncomar, with all his acuteness, did not understand the

nature of the institutions under which he lived. He saw that he had with him the majority of the body which made treaties, gave places, raised taxes. The separation between political and judicial functions was a thing of which he had no conception. It had probably never occurred to him that there was in Bengal an authority perfectly independent of the Council, an authority which could protect one whom the Council wished to destroy, and send to the gibbet one whom the Council wished to protect. Yet such was the fact. The Supreme Court was, within the sphere of its own duties, 10 altogether independent of the Government. Hastings, with his usual sagacity, had seen how much advantage he might derive from possessing himself of this stronghold ; and he had acted accordingly. The Judges, especially the Chief Justice, were hostile to the majority of the Council. The time had now come for putting this formidable machinery into action.

On a sudden, Calcutta was astounded by the news that Nuncomar had been taken up on a charge of felony, committed, and thrown into the common gaol. The crime imputed to him was that six years before he had forged a bond. The 20 ostensible prosecutor was a native. But it was then and still is the opinion of everybody, idiots and biographers excepted, that Hastings was the real mover in the business.

The rage of the majority rose to the highest point. They protested against the proceedings of the Supreme Court, and sent several urgent messages to the Judges, demanding that Nuncomar should be admitted to bail. The Judges returned haughty and resolute answers. All that the Council could do was to heap honours and emoluments on the family of Nuncomar, and this they did. In the meantime the assizes com- 30 menced ; a true bill was found, and Nuncomar was brought before Sir Elijah Impey and a jury composed of Englishmen. A great quantity of contradictory swearing, and the necessity of having every word of the evidence interpreted, protracted the trial to a most unusual length. At last a verdict of guilty was returned, and the Chief Justice pronounced sentence of death on the prisoner.

That Impey ought to have respited Nuncomar we hold to be perfectly clear. Whether the whole proceeding was not illegal is a question. But it is certain that whatever may 4) have been, according to technical rules of construction, the effect of the statute under which the trial took place, it was

most unjust to hang a Hindoo for forgery. The law which made forgery capital in England was passed without the smallest reference to the state of society in India. It was unknown to the natives of India. It had never been put in execution among them, certainly not for want of delinquents. It was in the highest degree shocking to all their notions. They were not accustomed to the distinction which many circumstances, peculiar to our own state of society, have led us to make between forgery and other kinds of cheating. The
 10 counterfeiting of a seal was, in their estimation, a common act of swindling; nor had it ever crossed their minds that it was to be punished as severely as gang-robbery or assassination. A just judge would, beyond all doubt, have reserved the case for the consideration of the sovereign. But Impey would not hear of mercy or delay.

The excitement among all classes was great. Francis and Francis's few English adherents described the Governor-General and the Chief Justice as the worst of murderers. Clavering, it was said, swore that even at the foot of the
 20 gallows Nuncomar should be rescued. The bulk of the European society, though strongly attached to the Governor-General, could not but feel compassion for a man who, with all his crimes, had so long filled so large a space in their sight, who had been great and powerful before the British Empire in India began to exist, and to whom in the old times Governors and members of Council, then mere commercial factors, had paid court for protection. The feeling of the Hindoos was infinitely stronger. They were, indeed, not a
 30 people to strike one blow for their countryman. But his sentence filled them with sorrow and dismay. Tried even by their low standard of morality, he was a bad man. But, bad as he was, he was the head of their race and religion, a Brahmin of the Brahmins. He had inherited the purest and highest caste. He had practised with the greatest punctuality all those ceremonies to which the superstitious Bengalees ascribe far more importance than to the correct discharge of the social duties. They felt, therefore, as a devout Catholic in the dark ages would have felt at seeing a prelate of the highest dignity sent to the gallows by a secular tribunal.
 40 According to their old national laws, a Brahmin could not be put to death for any crime whatever. And the crime for which Nuncomar was about to die was regarded by them in

much the same light in which the selling of an unsound horse for a sound price is regarded by a Yorkshire jockey.

The Mussulmans alone appear to have seen with exultation the fate of the powerful Hindoo, who had attempted to rise by means of the ruin of Mahommed Reza Khan. The Mahomedan historian of those times takes delight in aggravating the charge. He assures us that in Nuncomar's house a casket was found containing counterfeits of the seals of all the richest men of the province. We have never fallen in with any other authority for this story, which in itself is by 10 no means improbable.

The day drew near ; and Nuncomar prepared himself to die with that quiet fortitude with which the Bengalee, so effeminately timid in personal conflict, oftens encounters calamities for which there is no remedy. The sheriff, with the humanity which is seldom wanting in an English gentleman, visited the prisoner on the eve of the execution, and assured him that no indulgence consistent with the law should be refused to him. Nuncomar expressed his gratitude with great politeness and unaltered composure. Not a muscle of his face 20 moved. Not a sigh broke from him. He put his finger to his forehead, and calmly said that fate would have its way, and that there was no resisting the pleasure of God. He sent his compliments to Francis, Clavering, and Monson, and charged them to protect Rajah Goordas, who was about to become the head of the Brahmins of Bengal. The sheriff withdrew, greatly agitated by what had passed, and Nuncomar sat composedly down to write notes and examine accounts.

The next morning, before the sun was in his power, an immense 30 concourse assembled round the place where the gallows had been set up. Grief and horror were on every face ; yet to the last the multitude could hardly believe that the English really purposed to take the life of the great Brahmin. At length the mournful procession came through the crowd. Nuncomar sat up in his palanquin, and looked around him with unaltered serenity. He had just parted from those who were most nearly connected with him. Their cries and contortions had appalled the European ministers of justice, but had not produced the smallest effect on the iron stoicism of the 40 prisoner. The only anxiety which he expressed was that men of his own priestly caste might be in attendance to take

charge of his corpse. He again desired to be remembered to his friends in the Council, mounted the scaffold with firmness, and gave the signal to the executioner. The moment that the drop fell, a howl of sorrow and despair rose from the innumerable spectators. Hundreds turned away their faces from the polluting sight, fled with loud wailing towards the Hoogley, and plunged into its holy waters, as if to purify themselves from the guilt of having looked on such a crime. These feelings were not confined to Calcutta. The whole

10 province was greatly excited ; and the population of Dacca, in particular, gave strong signs of grief and dismay.

Of Impey's conduct it is impossible to speak too severely. We have already said that, in our opinion, he acted unjustly in refusing to respite Nuncomar. No rational man can doubt that he took this course in order to gratify the Governor-General. If we had ever had any doubts on that point, they would have been dispelled by a letter which Mr. Gleig has published. Hastings, three or four years later, described Impey as the man "to whose support he was at one time in-

20 debted for the safety of his fortune, honour, and reputation." These strong words can refer only to the case of Nuncomar ; and they must mean that Impey hanged Nuncomar in order to support Hastings. It is, therefore, our deliberate opinion that Impey, sitting as a judge, put a man unjustly to death in order to serve a political purpose.

But we look on the conduct of Hastings in a somewhat different light. He was struggling for fortune, honour, liberty all that makes life valuable. He was beset by rancorous and unprincipled enemies. From his colleagues he could expect

30 no justice. He cannot be blamed for wishing to crush his accusers. He was indeed bound to use only legitimate means for that end. But it was not strange that he should have thought any means legitimate which were pronounced legitimate by the sages of the law, by men whose peculiar duty it was to deal justly between adversaries, and whose education might be supposed to have peculiarly qualified them for the discharge of that duty. Nobody demands from a party the unbending equity of a judge. The reason that judges are appointed is that even a good man cannot be trusted to decide

40 a cause in which he is himself concerned. Not a day passes on which an honest prosecutor does not ask for what none but a dishonest tribunal would grant. It is too much to expect

that any man, when his dearest interests are at stake and his strongest passions excited, will, as against himself, be more just than the sworn dispensers of justice. To take an analogous case from the history of our own island; suppose that Lord Stafford, when in the Tower on suspicion of being concerned in the Popish plot, had been apprised that Titus Oates had done something which might, by a questionable construction be brought under the head of felony. Should we severely blame Lord Stafford, in the supposed case, for causing a prosecution to be instituted, for furnishing funds, for 10 using all his influence to intercept the mercy of the Crown? We think not. If a judge, indeed, from favour to the Catholic lords, were to strain the law in order to hang Oates, such a judge would richly deserve impeachment. But it does not appear to us that the Catholic lord, by bringing the case before the judge for decision, would materially overstep the limits of a just self-defence.

While, therefore, we have not the least doubt that this memorable execution is to be attributed to Hastings, we doubt whether it can with justice be reckoned among his 20 crimes. That his conduct was dictated by a profound policy is evident. He was in a minority in Council. It was possible that he might long be in a minority. He knew the native character well. He knew in what abundance accusations are certain to flow in against the most innocent inhabitant of India who is under the frown of power. There was not in the whole black population of Bengal a place-holder, a place-hunter, a government tenant, who did not think that he might better himself by sending up a deposition against the Governor-General. Under these circumstances, the perse- 30 cuted statesman resolved to teach the whole crew of accusers and witnesses that, though in a minority at the Council Board, he was still to be feared. The lesson which he gave them was indeed a lesson not to be forgotten. The head of the combination which had been formed against him, the richest, the most powerful, the most artful of the Hindoos, distinguished by the favour of those who then held the government, fenced round by the superstitious reverence of millions, was hanged in broad day before many thousands of people. Everything that could make the warning impressive 40—dignity in the sufferer, solemnity in the proceeding—was found in this case. The helpless rage and vain struggles of

the Council made the triumph more signal. From that moment the conviction of every native was that it was safer to take the part of Hastings in a minority than that of Francis in a majority, and that he who was so venturous as to join in running down the Governor-General might chance, in the phrase of the Eastern poet, to find a tiger while beating the jungle for a deer. The voices of a thousand informers were silenced in an instant. From that time, whatever difficulties Hastings might have to encounter, he was never molested by
10 accusations from natives of India.

It is a remarkable circumstance that one of the letters of Hastings to Dr. Johnson bears date a very few hours after the death of Nuncomar. While the whole settlement was in commotion, while a mighty and ancient priesthood were weeping over the remains of their chief, the conqueror in that deadly grapple sat down, with characteristic self-possession, to write about the Tour to the Hebrides, Jones's Persian Grammar, and the history, traditions, arts, and natural productions of India.

20 In the meantime intelligence of the Rohilla war and of the first disputes between Hastings and his colleagues had reached London. The directors took part with the majority, and sent out a letter filled with severe reflections on the conduct of Hastings. They condemned, in strong but just terms, the iniquity of undertaking offensive wars merely for the sake of pecuniary advantage. But they utterly forgot that, if Hastings had by illicit means obtained pecuniary advantages, he had done so, not for his own benefit, but in order to meet their demands. To enjoin honesty, and to insist on having
30 what could not be honestly got, was then the constant practice of the Company. As Lady Macbeth says of her husband, they "would not play false, and yet would wrongly win."

The Regulating Act, by which Hastings had been appointed Governor-General for five years, empowered the Crown to remove him on an address from the Company. Lord North was desirous to procure such an address. The three members of Council who had been sent out from England were men of his own choice. General Clavering, in particular, was sup-
40 ported by a large partliamentary connection, such as no Cabinet could be inclined to disoblige. The wish of the minister was to displace Hastings, and to put Clavering at the head of

the government. In the Court of Directors parties were very nearly balanced. Eleven voted against Hastings ; ten for him. The Court of Proprietors was then convened. The great sale-room presented a singular appearance. Letters had been sent by the Secretary of the Treasury, exhorting all the supporters of Government who held India stock to be in attendance. Lord Sandwich marshalled the friends of the administration with his usual dexterity and alertness. Fifty peers and privy councillors, seldom seen so far eastward, were counted in the crowd. The debate lasted till midnight. 10

The opponents of Hastings had a small superiority on the division ; but a ballot was demanded, and the result was that the Governor-General triumphed by a majority of above a hundred votes over the combined efforts of the Directors and the Cabinet. The ministers were greatly exasperated by this defeat. Even Lord North lost his temper, no ordinary occurrence with him, and threatened to convoke Parliament before Christmas, and to bring in a bill for depriving the Company of all political power, and for restricting it to its old business of trading in silks and teas. 20

Colonel Maclean, who through all this conflict had zealously supported the cause of Hastings, now thought that his employer was in imminent danger of being turned out, branded with parliamentary censure, perhaps prosecuted. The opinion of the Crown lawyers had already been taken respecting some parts of the Governor-General's conduct. It seemed to be high time to think of securing an honourable retreat. Under these circumstances, Maclean thought himself justified in producing the resignation with which he had been intrusted. The instrument was not in very accurate 30 form ; but the Directors were too eager to be scrupulous. They accepted the resignation, fixed on Mr. Wheler, one of their own body, to succeed Hastings, and sent out orders that General Clavering, as senior member of the Council, should exercise the functions of Governor-General till Mr. Wheler should arrive.

But while these things were passing in England, a great change had taken place in Bengal. Monson was no more. Only four members of the government were left. Clavering and Francis were on one side, Barwell and the Governor- 40 General on the other, and the Governor-General had the casting vote. Hastings, who had been during two years

destitute of all power and patronage, became at once absolute. He instantly proceeded to retaliate on his adversaries. Their measures were reversed ; their creatures were displaced. A new valuation of the lands of Bengal, for the purposes of taxation, was ordered ; and it was provided that the whole inquiry should be conducted by the Governor-General, and that all the letters relating to it should run in his name. He began, at the same time, to revolve vast plans of conquest and dominion, plans which he lived to see realized, though
10 not by himself. His project was to form subsidiary alliances with the native princes, particularly with those of Oude and Berar, and thus to make Britain the paramount power in India. While he was mediating these great designs, arrived the intelligence that he had ceased to be Governor-General, that his resignation had been accepted, that Wheeler was coming out immediately, and that till Wheeler arrived the chair was to be filled by Clavering.

Had Hastings still been in a minority, he would probably have retired without a struggle ; but he was now the real
20 master of British India, and he was not disposed to quit his high place. He asserted that he had never given any instructions which could warrant the steps taken at home. What his instructions had been, he owned he had forgotten. If he had kept a copy of them he had mislaid it. But he was certain that he had repeatedly declared to the Directors that he would not resign. He could not see how the Court, possessed of that declaration from himself, could receive his resignation from the doubtful hands of an agent. If the resignation were invalid, all the proceedings which were
30 founded on that resignation were null, and Hastings was still Governor-General.

He afterwards affirmed that, though his agents had not acted in conformity with his instructions, he would nevertheless have held himself bound by their acts, if Clavering had not attempted to seize the supreme power by violence. Whether this assertion were or were not true, it cannot be doubted that the imprudence of Clavering gave Hastings an advantage. The General sent for the keys of the fort and of the treasury, took possession of the records, and held a
40 council, at which Francis attended. Hastings took the chair in another apartment, and Barwell sat with him. Each of the two parties had a plausible show of right. There was no

authority entitled to their obedience within fifteen thousand miles. It seemed that there remained no way of settling the dispute except an appeal to arms ; and from such an appeal Hastings, confident of his influence over his countrymen in India, was not inclined to shrink. He directed the officers of the garrison at Fort William and of all the neighbouring stations to obey no orders but his. At the same time, with admirable judgment, he offered to submit the case to the Supreme Court and to abide by its decision. By making this proposition he risked nothing ; yet it was a proposition which his opponents could hardly reject. Nobody could be treated as a criminal for obeying what the judges should solemnly pronounce to be the lawful government. The boldest man would shrink from taking arms in defence of what the judges should pronounce to be usurpation. Clavering and Francis, after some delay, unwillingly consented to abide by the award of the Court. The Court pronounced that the resignation was invalid, and that therefore Hastings was still Governor-General under the Regulating Act ; and the defeated members of the Council, finding that the sense of the whole settlement was against them, acquiesced in the decision. 10 20

About this time arrived the news that, after a suit which had lasted several years, the Franconian courts had decreed a divorce between Imhoff and his wife. The Baron left Calcutta, carrying with him the means of buying an estate in Saxony. The lady became Mrs. Hastings. The event was celebrated by great festivities ; and all the most conspicuous persons at Calcutta, without distinction of parties, were invited to the Government House. Clavering, as the Mahomedan chronicler tells the story, was sick in mind and body, 30 and excused himself from joining the splendid assembly. But Hastings, whom, as it should seem, success in ambition and in love had put into high good humour, would take no denial. He went himself to the General's house, and at length brought his vanquished rival in triumph to the gay circle which surrounded the bride. The exertion was too much for a frame broken by mortification as well as by disease. Clavering died a few days later.

Wheler, who came out expecting to be Governor-General, and was forced to content himself with a seat at the Council Board, generally voted with Francis. But the Governor-General, with Barwell's help and his own casting vote, was 40

still the master. Some change took place at this time in the feeling both of the Court of Directors and of the Ministers of the Crown. All designs against Hastings were dropped, and when his original term of five years expired, he was quietly reappointed. The truth is, that the fearful dangers to which the public interests in every quarter were now exposed made both Lord North and the Company unwilling to part with a Governor whose talents, experience, and resolution enmity itself was compelled to acknowledge.

- 10 The crisis was indeed formidable. That great and victorious empire, on the throne of which George the Third had taken his seat eighteen years before with brighter hopes than had attended the accession of any of the long line of English sovereigns, had, by the most senseless misgovernment, been brought to the verge of ruin. In America millions of Englishmen were at war with the country from which their blood, their language, their religion, and their institutions were derived, and to which, but a short time before, they had been as strongly attached as the inhabitants of Norfolk and
- 20 Leicestershire. The great powers of Europe, humbled to the dust by the vigour and genius which had guided the councils of George the Second, now rejoiced in the prospect of a signal revenge. The time was approaching when our island, while struggling to keep down the United States of America, and pressed with a still nearer danger by the too just discontents of Ireland, was to be assailed by France, Spain, and Holland, and to be threatened by the armed neutrality of the Baltic; when even our maritime supremacy was to be in jeopardy; when hostile fleets were to command the Straits of
- 30 Calpe and the Mexican Sea; when the British flag was to be scarcely able to protect the British Channel. Great as were the faults of Hastings, it was happy for our country that at that conjuncture, the most terrible through which she has ever passed, he was the ruler of her Indian dominions.

- An attack by sea on Bengal was little to be apprehended. The danger was that the European enemies of England might form an alliance with some native power, might furnish that power with troops, arms, and ammunition, and might thus assail our possessions on the side of the land. It was chiefly
- 40 from the Mahrattas that Hastings anticipated danger. The original seat of that singular people was the wild range of hills which runs along the western coast of India. In the

reign of Aurungzebe the inhabitants of those regions, led by the great Sevajee, began to descend on the possessions of their wealthier and less warlike neighbours. The energy, ferocity, and cunning of the Mahrattas soon made them the most conspicuous among the new powers which were generated by the corruption of the decaying monarchy. At first they were only robbers. They soon rose to the dignity of conquerors. Half the provinces of the empire were turned into Mahratta principalities. Freebooters, sprung from low castes and accustomed to menial employments, became 10 mighty Rajahs. The Bonslas, at the head of a band of plunderers, occupied the vast region of Berar. The Guicowar—which is, being interpreted, the Herdsman—founded that dynasty which still reigns in Guzerat. The houses of Scindia and Holkar waxed great in Malwa. One adventurous captain made his nest on the impregnable rock of Gooti. Another became the lord of the thousand villages which are scattered among the green rice-fields of Tanjore.

That was the time, throughout India, of double government. The form and the power were everywhere separated. The 20 Mussulman nabobs who had become sovereign princes, the Vizier in Oude, and the Nizam at Hyderabad, still called themselves the viceroys of the house of Tamerlane. In the same manner the Mahratta States, though really independent of each other, pretended to be members of one empire. They all acknowledged, by words and ceremonies, the supremacy of the heir of Sevajee, a *roi fainéant* who chewed bang and toyed with dancing girls in a State prison at Sattara, and of his Peshwa, or mayor of the palace, a great hereditary magistrate, who kept a court with kingly state at Poonah, and 30 whose authority was obeyed in the spacious provinces of Aurungabad and Bajupoor.

Some months before war was declared in Europe the Government of Bengal was alarmed by the news that a French adventurer, who passed for a man of quality, had arrived at Poonah. It was said that he had been received there with great distinction, that he had delivered to the Peshwa letters and presents from Louis the Sixteenth, and that a treaty, hostile to England, had been concluded between France and the Mahrattas.

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Hastings immediately resolved to strike the first blow, The title of the Peshwa was not undisputed. A portion of

the Mahratta nation was favourable to a pretender. The Governor-General determined to espouse this pretender's interest, to move an army across the peninsula of India, and to form a close alliance with the chief of the house of Bonsla, who ruled Berar, and who, in power and dignity, was inferior to none of the Mahratta princes.

The army had marched, and the negotiations with Berar were in progress, when a letter from the English consul at Cairo brought the news that war had been proclaimed both
10 in London and Paris. All the measures which the crisis required were adopted by Hastings without a moment's delay. The French factories in Bengal were seized. Orders were sent to Madras that Pondicherry should instantly be occupied. Near Calcutta works were thrown up which were thought to render the approach of hostile force impossible. A maritime establishment was formed for the defence of the river. Nine new battalions of sepoys were raised, and a corps of native artillery was formed out of the hardy Lascars of the Bay of Bengal. Having made these arrangements, the Gov-
20 ernor-General, with calm confidence, pronounced his presidency secure from all attack, unless the Mahrattas should march against it in conjunction with the French.

The expedition which Hastings had sent westward was not so speedily or completely successful as most of his undertakings. The commanding officer procrastinated. The authorities at Bombay blundered. But the Governor-General persevered. A new commander repaired the errors of his predecessor. Several brilliant actions spread the military renown of the English through regions where no European
30 flag had ever been seen. It is probable that, if a new and more formidable danger had not compelled Hastings to change his whole policy, his plans respecting the Mahratta empire would have been carried into complete effect.

The authorities in England had wisely sent out to Bengal, as commander of the forces and member of the Council, one of the most distinguished soldiers of that time. Sir Eyre Coote had, many years before, been conspicuous among the founders of the British empire in the East. At the council of war which preceded the battle of Plassey, he earnestly recom-
04 mended, in opposition to the majority, that daring course which, after some hesitation, was adopted, and which was crowned with such splendid success. He subsequently com-

manded in the south of India against the brave and unfortunate Lally, gained the decisive battle of Wandewash over the French and their native allies, took Pondicherry, and made the English power supreme in the Carnatic. Since those great exploits near twenty years have elapsed. Coote had no longer the bodily activity which he had shown in earlier days; nor was the vigour of his mind altogether unimpaired. He was capricious and fretful, and required much coaxing to keep him in good humour. It must, we fear, be added that the love of money had grown upon him, and that 10 he thought more about his allowances, and less about his duties, than might have been expected from so eminent a member of so noble a profession. Still he was perhaps the ablest officer that was then to be found in the British army. Among the native soldiers his name was great and his influence unrivalled. Nor is he yet forgotten by them. Now and then a white-bearded old sepoy may still be found who loves to talk of Porto Nova and Pollilore. It is but a short time since one of these aged men came to present a memorial to an English officer, who holds one of the highest employ- 20 ments in India. A print of Coote hung in the room. The veteran recognised at once that face and figure which he had not seen for more than half a century, and, forgetting his salam to the living, halted, drew himself up, lifted his hand, and with solemn reverence paid his military obeisance to the dead.

Coote, though he did not, like Barwell, vote constantly with the Governor-General, was by no means inclined to join in systematic opposition, and on most questions concurred with Hastings, who did his best, by assiduous courtship, and 30 by readily granting the most exorbitant allowances, to gratify the strongest passions of the old soldier.

It seemed likely at this time that a general reconciliation would put an end to the quarrels which had, during some years, weakened and disgraced the government of Bengal. The dangers of the empire might well induce men of patriotic feeling,—and of patriotic feeling neither Hastings nor Francis was destitute—to forget private enmities, and to co-operate heartily for the general good. Coote had never been concerned in faction. Wheler was thoroughly tired of it. Bar- 40 well had made an ample fortune, and, though he had promised that he would not leave Calcutta while his help was needed

in Council, was most desirous to return to England, and exerted himself to promote an arrangement which would set him at liberty.

A compact was made, by which Francis agreed to desist from opposition, and Hastings engaged that the friends of Francis should be admitted to a fair share of the honours and emoluments of the service. During a few months after this treaty there was apparent harmony at the Council Board.

Harmony, indeed, was never more necessary ; for at this
 10 moment internal calamities, more formidable than war itself, menaced Bengal. The authors of the Regulating Act of 1773 had established two independent powers, the one judicial, and the other political ; and, with a carelessness scandalously common in English legislation, had omitted to define the limits of either. The judges took advantage of the indistinctness, and attempted to draw to themselves supreme authority, not only within Calcutta, but through the whole of the great territory subject to the Presidency of Fort William. There are few Englishmen who will not admit that the English law, in spite
 20 of modern improvements, is neither so cheap nor so speedy as might be wished. Still, it is a system which has grown up among us. In some points it has been fashioned to suit our feelings ; in others, it has gradually fashioned our feelings to suit itself. Even to its worst evils we are accustomed ; and therefore, we may complain of them, they do not strike us with the horror and dismay which would be produced by a new grievance of smaller severity. In India the case is widely different. English law, transplanted to that country, has all the vices from which we suffer here ; it has them all
 30 in a far higher degree ; and it has other vices, compared with which the worst vices from which we suffer are trifles. Dilatory here, it is far more dilatory in a land where the help of an interpreter is needed by every judge and by every advocate. Costly here, it is far more costly in a land into which the legal practioners must be imported from an immense distance. All English labour in India, from the labour of the Governor-General and the Commander-in-Chief, down to that of a groom or a watchmaker, must be paid for at a higher rate than at home. No man will be banished, and banished to the
 40 torrid zone, for nothing. The rule holds good with respect to the legal profession. No English barrister will work, fifteen thousand miles from all his friends, with the thermometer

at ninety-six in the shade, for the emoluments which will content him in chambers that overlook the Thames. Accordingly, the fees at Calcutta are about three times as great as the fees at Westminster Hall; and this, though the people of India are, beyond all comparison, poorer than the people of England. Yet the delays and the expense, grievous as they are, form the smallest part of the evil which English law, imported without modifications into India, could not fail to produce. The strongest feelings of our nature, honour, religion, female modesty, rise up against the innovation. 10 Arrest on mesne process was the first step in most civil proceedings; and to a native of rank arrest was not merely a restraint, but a foul personal indignity. Oaths were required in every stage of every suit; and the feeling of a Quaker about an oath is hardly stronger than that of a respectable native. That the apartments of a woman of quality should be entered by strange men, or that her face should be seen by them, are, in the East, intolerable outrages, outrages which are more dreaded than death, and which can be expiated only by the shedding of blood. To these outrages the most distinguished 20 families of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, were now exposed. Imagine what the state of our own country would be, if a jurisprudence were on a sudden introduced among us, which should be to us what our jurisprudence was to our Asiatic subjects. Imagine what the state of our country would be if it were enacted that any man, by merely swearing that a debt was due to him, should acquire a right to insult the persons of men of the most honourable and sacred callings and of women of the most shrinking delicacy, to horse-whip a general officer, to put a bishop in the stocks, to treat ladies in the 30 way which called forth the blow of Wat Tyler. Something like this was the effect of the attempt, which the Supreme Court made to extend its jurisdiction over the whole of the Company's territory.

A reign of terror began, of terror heightened by mystery; for even that which was endured was less horrible than that which was anticipated. No man knew what was next to be expected from this strange tribunal. It came from beyond the black water, as the people of India, with mysterious horror, call the sea. It consisted of judges not one of whom 40 was familiar with the usages of the millions over whom they claimed boundless authority. Its records were kept in un-

known characters ; its sentences were pronounced in unknown sounds. It had already collected round itself an army of the worst part of the native population—informers, and false witnesses, and common barrators, and agents of chicane, and, above all, a banditti of bailiff's followers, compared with whom the retainers of the worst English sponging-houses, in the worst times, might be considered as upright and tender-hearted. Many natives, highly considered among their countrymen, were seized, hurried up to Calcutta, flung into the
 10 common gaol, not for any crime even imputed, not for any debt that had been proved, but merely as a precaution till their cause should come to trial. There were instances in which men of the most venerable dignity, persecuted without a cause by extortioners, died of rage and shame in the gripe of the vile alguazils of Impey. The harems of noble Mahomedans, sanctuaries respected in the East by governments which respected nothing else, were burst open by gangs of bailiffs. The Mussulmans, braver and less accustomed to submission than the Hindoos, sometimes stood on their de-
 20 fence ; and there were instances in which they shed their blood in the doorway, while defending, sword in hand, the sacred apartments of their women. Nay, it seemed as if even the faint-hearted Bengalee, who had crouched at the feet of Surajah Dowlah, who had been mute during the administration of Vansitart, would at length find courage in despair. No Mahratta invasion had ever spread through the province such dismay as this inroad of English lawyers. All the injustice of former oppressors, Asiatic and European, appeared as a blessing when compared with the justice of the
 30 Supreme Court.

Every class of the population, English and native, with the exception of the ravenous pettifoggers who fattened on the misery and terror of an immense community, cried out loudly against this fearful oppression. But the judges were immovable. If a bailiff was resisted they ordered the soldiers to be called out. If a servant of the Company, in conformity with the orders of the Government, withstood the miserable catchpoles who, with Impey's writs in their hands, exceeded the insolence and rapacity of gang-robbers, he was flung into
 40 prison for a contempt. The lapse of sixty years, the virtue and wisdom of many eminent magistrates who have during that time administered justice in the Supreme Court, have

not effaced from the minds of the people of Bengal the recollection of those evil days.

The members of the Government were, on this subject, united as one man. Hastings had courted the judges ; he had found them useful instruments ; but he was not disposed to make them his own masters, or the masters of India. His mind was large ; his knowledge of the native character most accurate. He saw that the system pursued by the Supreme Court was degrading to the Government and ruinous to the people ; and he resolved to oppose it manfully. The consequence was, that the friendship, if that be the proper word for such a connection, which had existed between him and Impey, was for a time completely dissolved. The Government placed itself firmly between the tyrannical tribunal and the people. The Chief Justice proceeded to the wildest excesses. The Governor-General and all the members of Council were served with writs, calling on them to appear before the King's Justices, and to answer for their public acts. This was too much. Hastings, with just scorn, refused to obey the call, set at liberty the persons wrongfully detained by the Court, and took measures for resisting the outrageous proceedings of the sheriff's officers, if necessary, by the sword. But he had in view another device, which might prevent the necessity of an appeal to arms. He was seldom at a loss for an expedient ; and he knew Impey well. The expedient in this case was a very simple one, neither more nor less than a bribe. Impey was, by Act of Parliament, a judge, independent of the government of Bengal, and entitled to a salary of eight thousand a year. Hastings proposed to make him also a judge in the Company's service, removable at the pleasure of the Government of Bengal ; and to give him, in that capacity, about eight thousand a year more. It was understood that, in consideration of this new salary, Impey would desist from urging the high pretensions of his court. If he did urge these pretensions, the Government could, at a moment's notice, eject him from the new place which had been created for him. The bargain was struck ; Bengal was saved ; an appeal to force was averted ; and the Chief Justice was rich, quiet, and infamous.

Of Impey's conduct it is unnecessary to speak. It was of a piece with almost every part of his conduct that comes under the notice of history. No other such judge has dis-

honoured the English ermine since Jefferies drank himself to death in the Tower. But we cannot agree with those who have blamed Hastings for this transaction. The case stood thus. The negligent manner in which the Regulating Act had been framed put it in the power of the Chief Justice to throw a great country into the most dreadful confusion. He was determined to use his power to the utmost unless he was paid to be still ; and Hastings consented to pay him. The necessity was to be deplored. It is also to be deplored that
10 pirates should be able to exact ransom by threatening to make their captives walk the plank. But to ransom a captive from pirates has always been held a humane and Christian act ; and it would be absurd to charge the payer of the ransom with corrupting the virtue of the corsair. This, we seriously think, is a not unfair illustration of the relative position of Impey, Hastings, and the people of India. Whether it was right in Impey to demand or to accept a price for powers which, if they really belonged to him, he could not abdicate, which, if they did not belong to him, he ought never
20 to have usurped, and which in neither case he could honestly sell, is one question. It is quite another question whether Hastings was not right to give any sum, however large, to any man, however worthless, rather than either surrender millions of human beings to pillage, or rescue them by civil war.

Francis strongly opposed this arrangement. It may, indeed, be suspected that personal aversion to Impey was as strong a motive with Francis as regard for the welfare of the province. To a mind burning with resentment, it might seem better to leave Bengal to the oppressors than to redeem
30 it by enriching them. It is not improbable, on the other hand, that Hastings may have been the more willing to resort to an expedient agreeable to the Chief Justice, because that high functionary had already been so serviceable, and might, when existing dissensions were composed, be serviceable again.

But it was not on this point alone that Francis was now opposed to Hastings. The peace between them proved to be only a short and hollow truce, during which their mutual aversion was constantly becoming stronger. At length an
40 explosion took place. Hastings publicly charged Francis with having deceived him, and with having induced Barwell to quit the service with insincere promises. Then came a

dispute, such as frequently arises even between honourable men, when they may make important agreements by mere verbal communication. An impartial historian will probably be of opinion that they had misunderstood each other ; but their minds were so much embittered that they imputed to each other nothing less than deliberate villainy. "I do not," said Hastings, in a minute recorded on the Consultations of the Government, "I do not trust to Mr. Francis's promises of candour, convinced that he is incapable of it. I judge of his public conduct by his private, which I have found to be 10 void of truth and honour." After the Council had risen, Francis put a challenge into the Governor-General's hand. It was instantly accepted. They met, and fired. Francis was shot through the body. He was carried to a neighbouring house, where it appeared that the wound, though severe, was not mortal. Hastings inquired repeatedly after his enemy's health, and proposed to call on him ; but Francis coldly declined the visit. He had a proper sense, he said, of the Governor-General's politeness, but could not consent to any private interview. They could meet only at the Council 20 Board.

In a very short time it was made signally manifest to how great a danger the Governor-General had, on this occasion, exposed his country. A crisis arrived with which he, and he alone, was competent to deal. It is not too much to say that if he had been taken from the head of affairs, the years 1780 and 1781 would have been as fatal to our power in Asia as to our power in America.

The Mahrattas had been the chief objects of apprehension to Hastings. The measures which he had adopted for the 30 purpose of breaking their power had at first been frustrated by the errors of those whom he was compelled to employ ; but his perseverance and ability seemed likely to be crowned with success, when a far more formidable danger showed itself in a distant quarter.

About thirty years before this time a Mahommedan soldier had begun to distinguish himself in the wars of Southern India. His education had been neglected ; his extraction was humble. His father had been a petty officer of revenue ; his grandfather a wandering dervish. But though thus 40 meanly descended, though ignorant even of the alphabet, the adventurer had no sooner been placed at the head of a body

- of troops than he approved himself a man born for conquest and command. Among the crowd of chiefs who were struggling for a share of India, none could compare with him in the qualities of the captain and the statesman. He became a general; he became a sovereign. Out of the fragments of old principalities, which had gone to pieces in the general wreck, he formed for himself a great, compact, and vigorous empire. That empire he ruled with the ability, severity, and vigilance of Lewis the Eleventh. Licentious in his pleasures, 10 implacable in his revenge, he had yet enlargement of mind enough to perceive how much the prosperity of subjects adds to the strength of governments. He was an oppressor; but he had at least the merit of protecting his people against all oppression except his own. He was now in extreme old age, but his intellect was as clear and his spirit as high as in the prime of manhood. Such was the great Hyder Ali, the founder of the Mahomedan kingdom of Mysore, and the most formidable enemy with whom the English conquerors of India have ever had to contend.
- 20 Had Hastings been Governor of Madras, Hyder would have been either made a friend, or vigorously encountered as an enemy. Unhappily the English authorities in the South provoked their powerful neighbour's hostility, without being prepared to repel it. On a sudden, an army of ninety thousand men, far superior in discipline and efficiency to any other native force that could be found in India, came pouring through those wild passes which, worn by mountain torrents, and dark with jungle, lead down from the table-land of Mysore to the plains of the Carnatic. This great army was 30 accompanied by a hundred pieces of cannon; and its movements were guided by many French officers, trained in the best military schools of Europe.

Hyder was everywhere triumphant. The sepoy in many British garrisons flung down their arms. Some forts were surrendered by treachery, and some by despair. In a few days the whole open country north of the Coleroon had submitted. The English inhabitants of Madras could already see by night, from the top of Mount St. Thomas, the eastern sky reddened by a vast semicircle of blazing villages. The 40 white villas, to which our countrymen retire after the daily labours of government and of trade, when the cool evening breeze springs up from the bay, were now left without inhab-

itants ; for bands of the fierce horsemen of Mysore had already been seen prowling among the tulip trees and near the gay verandas. Even the town was not thought secure, and the British merchants and public functionaries made haste to crowd themselves behind the cannon of Fort St. George.

There were the means, indeed, of assembling an army which might have defended the presidency, and even driven the invader back to his mountains. Sir Hector Munro was at the head of one considerable force ; Baillie was advancing 10 with another. United they might have presented a formidable front even to such an enemy as Hyder. But the English commanders, neglecting those fundamental rules of the military art, of which the propriety is obvious even to men who had never received a military education, deferred their junction, and were separately attacked. Baillie's detachment was destroyed. Munro was forced to abandon his baggage, to fling his guns into the tanks, and to save himself by a retreat which might be called a flight. In three weeks from the commencement of the war the British empire in Southern 20 India had been brought to the verge of ruin. Only a few fortified places remained to us. The glory of our arms had departed. It was known that a great French Expedition might soon be expected on the coast of Coromandel. England, beset by enemies on every side, was in no condition to protect such remote dependencies.

Then it was that the fertile genius and serene courage of Hastings achieved their most signal triumph. A swift ship, flying before the south-west monsoon, brought the evil tidings in a few days to Calcutta. In twenty-four hours the Governor- 30 General had framed a complete plan of policy adapted to the altered state of affairs. The struggle with Hyder was a struggle for life and death. All minor objects must be sacrificed to the preservation of the Carnatic. The disputes with the Mahrattas must be accommodated. A large military force and a supply of money must be instantly sent to Madras. But even these measures would be insufficient unless the war, hitherto so grossly mismanaged, were placed under the direction of a vigorous mind. It was no time for trifling. Hastings determined to resort to an extreme exercise of 40 power, to suspend the incapable Governor of Fort St. George, to send Sir Ayre Coote to oppose Hyder, and to intrust

that distinguished general with the whole administration of the war.

In spite of the sullen opposition of Francis, who had now recovered from his wound, and had returned to the Council, the Governor-General's wise and firm policy was approved by the majority of the Board. The reinforcements were sent off with great expedition, and reached Madras before the French armament arrived in the Indian seas. Coote, broken by age, and disease, was no longer the Coote of Wandewash ; but he
10 was still a resolute and skilful commander. The progress of Hyder was arrested ; and in a few months the great victory of Porto Novo retrieved the honour of the English arms.

In the meantime Francis had returned to England, and Hastings was now left perfectly unfettered. Wheeler had gradually been relaxing in his opposition, and, after the departure of his vehement and implacable colleague, co-operated heartily with the Governor-General, whose influence over the British in India, always great, had, by the vigour and success of his recent measures, been considerably increased.

20 But, though the difficulties arising from factions within the Council were at an end, another class of difficulties had become more pressing than ever. The financial embarrassment was extreme. Hastings had to find the means not only of carrying on the government of Bengal, but of maintaining a most costly war against both Indian and European enemies in the Carnatic, and of making remittances to England. A few years before this time he had obtained relief by plundering the Mogul and enslaving the Rohillas ; nor were the resources of his fruitful mind by any means exhausted.

30 His first design was on Benares, a city which, in wealth, population, dignity, and sanctity, was among the foremost of Asia. It was commonly believed that half a million of human beings was crowded into that labyrinth of lofty alleys, rich with shrines, and minarets, and balconies, and carved oriels, to which the sacred apes clung by hundreds. The traveller could scarcely make his way through the press of holy mendicants and not less holy bulls. The broad and stately flights of steps, which descended from these swarming
40 haunts to the bathing places along the Ganges, were worn every day by the footsteps of an innumerable multitude of worshippers. The schools and temples drew crowds of pious Hindoos from every province where the Brahminical faith was

known. Hundreds of devotees came thither every month to die ; for it was believed that a peculiarly happy fate awaited the man who should pass from the sacred city into the sacred river. Nor was superstition the only motive which allured strangers to that great metropolis. Commerce had as many pilgrims as religion. All along the shores of the venerable stream lay great fleets of vessels laden with rich merchandise. From the looms of Benares went forth the most delicate silks that adorned the balls of St. James's and of Versailles ; and in the bazaars, the muslins of Bengal and the sabres of Oude 10 were mingled with the jewels of Golconda and the shawls of Cashmere. This rich capital and the surrounding tract had long been under the immediate rule of a Hindoo prince, who rendered homage to the Mogul emperors. During the great anarchy of India the lords of Benares became independent of the Court of Delhi, but were compelled to submit to the authority of the Nabob of Oude. Oppressed by this formidable neighbour, they invoked the protection of the English. The English protection was given ; and at length the Nabob Vizier, by a solemn treaty, ceded all his rights over Benares 20 to the Company. From that time the Rajah was the vassal of the government of Bengal, acknowledged its supremacy, and engaged to send an annual tribute to Fort William. This tribute Cheyte Sing, the reigning prince, had paid with strict punctuality.

About the precise nature of the legal relation between the Company and the Rajah of Benares there has been much warm and acute controversy. On the one side, it has been maintained that Cheyte Sing was merely a great subject on whom the superior power had a right to call for aid in the 30 necessities of the empire. On the other side, it has been contended that he was an independent prince, that the only claim which the Company had upon him was for a fixed tribute, and that, while the fixed tribute was regularly paid, as it assuredly was, the English had no more right to exact any further contribution from him than to demand subsidies from Holland or Denmark. Nothing is easier than to find precedents and analogies in favour of either view.

Our own impression is that neither view is correct. It was too much the habit of English politicians to take it for granted 40 that there was in India a known and definite constitution by which questions of this kind were to be decided. The truth

is that during the interval which elapsed between the fall of the house of Tamerlane and the establishment of the British ascendancy, there was no such constitution. The old order of things had passed away ; the new order of things was not yet formed. All was transition, confusion, obscurity. Everybody kept his head as he best might, and scrambled for whatever he could get. There have been similiar seasons in Europe. The time of the dissolution of the Carlovigian empire is an instance. Who would think of seriously discussing the question, what extent of pecuniary aid and of obedience Hugh Capet had a constitutional right to demand from the Duke of Brittany or the Duke of Normandy ? The words " constitutional right " had, in that state of society, no meaning. If Hugh Capet laid hands on all the possessions of the Duke of Normandy, this might be unjust and immoral ; but it would not be illegal, in the sense in which the ordinances of Charles the Tenth were illegal. If, on the other hand, the Duke of Normandy made war on Hugh Capet, this might be unjust and immoral ; but it would not be illegal, in the sense in which the expedition of Prince Louis Bonaparte was illegal.

Very similar to this was the state of India sixty years ago. Of the existing governments, not a single one could lay claim to legitimacy, or could plead any other title than recent occupation. There was scarcely a province in which the real sovereignty and the nominal sovereignty were not disjoined. Titles and forms were still retained which implied that the heir of Tamerlane was an absolute ruler, and that the Nabobs of the provinces were his lieutenants. In reality, he was a captive. The Nabobs were in some places independent princes. In other places, as in Bengal and the Carnatic, they had, like their master, become mere phantoms, and the Company was supreme. Among the Mahrattas, again, the heir of Sevajee still kept the title of Rajah ; but he was a prisoner, and his prime minister, the Peshwa, had become the hereditary chief of the state. The Peshwa, in his turn, was fast sinking into the same degraded situation into which he had reduced the Rajah. It was, we believe impossible to find, from the Himalayas to Mysore, a single government which was at once a government *de facto* and a government *de jure*, which possessed the physical means of making itself feared by its neighbours and subjects, and which had at

the same time the authority derived from law and long prescription.

Hastings clearly discerned what was hidden from most of his contemporaries, that such a state of things gave immense advantages to a ruler of great talents and few scruples. In every international question that could arise, he had his option between the *de facto* ground and the *de jure* ground ; and the probability was that one of those grounds would sustain any claim that it might be convenient for him to make, and enable him to resist any claim made by others. In every controversy, accordingly, he resorted to the plea which suited his immediate purpose, without troubling himself in the least about consistency ; and thus he scarcely ever failed to find what, to persons of short memories and scanty information, seemed to be a justification for what he wanted to do. Sometimes the Nabob of Bengal is a shadow, sometimes a monarch. Sometimes the Vizier is a mere deputy, sometimes an independent potentate. If it is expedient for the Company to show some legal title to the revenues of Bengal, the grant under the seal of the Mogul is brought forward as an instrument of the highest authority. When the Mogul asks for the rents which were reserved to him by that very grant, he is told that he is a mere pageant, that the English power rests on a very different foundation from a charter given by him ; that he is welcome to play at royalty as long as he likes, but that he must expect no tribute from the real masters of India.

It is true that it was in the power of others, as well as of Hastings, to practice this legerdemain ; but in the controversies of governments, sophistry is of little use unless it be backed by power. There is a principle which Hastings was fond of asserting in the strongest terms, and on which he acted with undeviating steadiness. It is a principle which, we must own, though it may be grossly abused, can hardly be disputed in the present state of public law. It is this, that where an ambiguous question arises between two governments, there is, if they cannot agree, no appeal except to force, and that the opinion of the stronger must prevail. Almost every question was ambiguous in India. The English government was the strongest in India. The consequences are obvious. The English government might do exactly what it chose.

The English government now chose to wring money out of Cheyte Sing. It had formerly been convenient to treat him as a sovereign prince ; it was now convenient to treat him as a subject. Dexterity inferior to that of Hastings could easily find, in the general chaos of laws and customs, arguments for either course. Hastings wanted a great supply. It was known that Cheyte Sing had a large revenue, and it was suspected that he had accumulated a treasure. Nor was he a favourite at Calcutta. He had, when the Governor-General
10 was in great difficulties, courted the favour of Francis and Clavering. Hastings, who, less perhaps from evil passions than from policy, seldom left an injury unpunished, was not sorry that the fate of Cheyte Sing should teach neighbouring princes the same lesson which the fate of Nuncomar had already impressed on the inhabitants of Bengal.

In 1778, on the first breaking out of the war with France, Cheyte Sing was called upon to pay, in addition to his fixed tribute, an extraordinary contribution of fifty thousand pounds. In 1779, an equal sum was exacted. In 1780, the
20 demand was renewed. Cheyte Sing, in the hope of obtaining some indulgence, secretly offered the Governor-General a bribe of twenty thousand pounds. Hastings took the money, and his enemies have maintained that he took it intending to keep it. He certainly concealed the transaction, for a time, both from the Council in Bengal and from the Directors at home ; nor did he ever give any satisfactory reason for the concealment. Public spirit, or the fear of detection, at last determined him to withstand the temptation. He paid over the bribe to the Company's treasury, and insisted that the Rajah should in-
30 stantly comply with the demands of the English government. The Rajah, after the fashion of his countrymen, shuffled, solicited, and pleaded poverty. The grasp of Hastings was not to be so eluded. He added to the requisition another ten thousand pounds as a fine for delay, and sent troops to exact the money.

The money was paid. But this was not enough. The late events in the south of India had increased the financial embarrassments of the Company. Hastings was determined to plunder Cheyte Sing, and, for that end, to fasten a quarrel
40 on him. Accordingly, the Rajah was now required to keep a body of cavalry for the service of the British government. He objected and evaded. This was exactly what the Gover-

nor-General wanted. He had now a pretext for treating the wealthiest of his vassals as a criminal. "I resolved,—these are the words of Hastings himself,—“to draw from his guilt the means of relief of the Company's distresses, to make him pay largely for his pardon, or to exact a severe vengeance for past delinquency.” The plan was simply this, to demand larger and larger contributions till the Rajah should be driven to remonstrate, then to call his remonstrance a crime, and to punish him by confiscating all his possessions.

Cheyte Sing was in the greatest dismay. He offered two 10 hundred thousand pounds to propitiate the British government. But Hastings replied that nothing less than half a million would be accepted. Nay, he began to think of selling Benares to Oude, as he had formerly sold Allahabad to Rohilcund. The matter was one which could not be well managed at a distance ; and Hastings resolved to visit Benares.

Cheyte Sing received his liege lord with every mark of reverence, came near sixty miles, with his guards, to meet and escort the illustrious visitor, and expressed his deep concern at the displeasure of the English. He even took off his 20 turban, and laid it in the lap of Hastings, a gesture which in India marks the most profound submission and devotion. Hastings behaved with cold and repulsive severity. Having arrived at Benares, he sent to the Rajah a paper containing the demands of the Government of Bengal. The Rajah, in reply, attempted to clear himself from the accusations brought against him. Hastings, who wanted money, not excuses, was not to be put off by the ordinary articles of Eastern negotiation. He instantly ordered the Rajah to be arrested and placed under the custody of two companies of sepoys. 30

In taking these strong measures, Hastings scarcely showed his usual judgment. It is possible that, having had little opportunity of personally observing any part of the population of India, except the Bengalees, he was not fully aware of the difference between their character and that of the tribes which inhabit the upper provinces. He was now in a land far more favourable to the vigour of the human frame than the Delta of the Ganges ; in a land fruitful of soldiers, who have been found worthy to follow English battalions to the charge and into the breach. The Rajah was popular among his subjects. His 40 administration had been mild ; and the prosperity of the district which he governed presented a striking contrast to the

depressed state of Bahar under our rule, and a still more striking contrast to the misery of the provinces which was cursed by the tyranny of the Nabob Vizier. The national and religious prejudices with which the English were regarded throughout India were peculiarly intense in the metropolis of the Brahminical superstition. It can therefore scarcely be doubted that the Governor-General, before he outraged the dignity of Cheyte Sing by an arrest, ought to have assembled a force capable of bearing down all opposition. This had not
10 been done. The handful of sepoys who attended Hastings would probably have been sufficient to overawe Moorshedabad, or the Black Town of Calcutta. But they were unequal to a conflict with the hardy rabble of Benares. The streets surrounding the palace were filled by an immense multitude, of whom a large proportion, as is usual in Upper India, wore arms. The tumult became a fight, and the fight a massacre. The English officers defended themselves with desperate courage against overwhelming numbers, and fell, as became them, sword in hand. The sepoys were butchered. The gates were
20 forced. The captive prince, neglected by his gaolers during the confusion, discovered an outlet which opened on the precipitous bank of the Ganges, let himself down to the water by a string made of the turbans of his attendants, found a boat, and escaped to the opposite shore.

If Hastings had, by indiscreet violence, brought himself into a difficult and perilous situation, it is only just to acknowledge that he extricated himself with even more than his usual ability and presence of mind. He had only fifty men with him. The building in which he had taken up his resi-
30 dence was on every side blockaded by the insurgents. But his fortitude remained unshaken. The Rajah, from the other side of the river, sent apologies and liberal offers. They were not even answered. Some subtle and enterprising men were found who undertook to pass through the throng of enemies, and to convey the intelligence of the late events to the English cantonments. It is the fashion of the natives of India to wear large earrings of gold. When they travel, the rings are laid aside, lest the precious metal should tempt some gang of robbers ; and, in place of the ring, a quill or a roll of
40 paper is inserted in the orifice to prevent it from closing. Hastings placed in the ears of his messengers letters rolled up in the smallest compass. Some of these letters were ad-

dressed to the commanders of English troops. One was written to assure his wife of his safety. One was to the envoy whom he had sent to negotiate with the Mahrattas. Instructions for the negotiation were needed, and the Governor-General framed them in that situation of extreme danger with as much composure as if he had been writing in his palace at Calcutta.

Things, however, were not yet at the worst. An English officer of more spirit than judgment, eager to distinguish himself, made a premature attack on the insurgents beyond the river. His troops were entangled in narrow streets, and assailed by a furious population. He fell, with many of his men, and the survivors were forced to retire. 10

This event produced the effect which has never failed to follow every check, however slight, sustained in India by the English arms. For hundreds of miles round the whole country was in commotion. The entire population of the district of Benares took arms. The fields were abandoned by the husbandmen, who thronged to defend their prince. The infection spread to Oude. The oppressed people of that 20 province rose up against the Nabob Vizier, refused to pay their imposts, and put the revenue officers to flight. Even Bahar was ripe for revolt. The hopes of Cheyte Sing began to rise. Instead of imploring mercy in the humble style of a vassal, he began to talk the language of a conqueror, and threatened, it was said, to sweep the white usurpers out of the land. But the English troops were now assembling fast. The officers, and even the private men, regarded the Governor-General with enthusiastic attachment, and flew to his aid with an alacrity which, as he boasted, had never been shown 30 on any other occasion. Major Popham, a brave and skilful soldier, who had highly distinguished himself in the Mahratta war, and in whom the Governor-General reposed the greatest confidence, took the command. The tumultuary army of the Rajah was put to rout. His fastnesses were stormed. In a few hours above thirty thousand men left his standard and returned to their ordinary avocations. The unhappy prince fled from his country forever. His fair domain was added to the British dominions. One of his relations indeed was appointed Rajah ; but the Rajah of Benares was henceforth to 40 be, like the Nabob of Bengal, a mere pensioner.

By this revolution an addition of two hundred thousand

pounds a year was made to the revenues of the Company. But the immediate relief was not as great as had been expected. The treasure laid up by Cheyte Sing had been popularly estimated at a million sterling. It turned out to be about a fourth part of that sum ; and, such as it was, it was seized by the army and divided as prize money.

Disappointed in his expectations from Benares, Hastings was more violent than he would otherwise have been in his dealings with Oude. Sujah Dowlah had long been dead. His son and successor, Asaph-ul-Dowlah, was one of the weakest and most vicious even of Eastern princes. His life was divided between torpid repose and the most odious forms of sensuality. In his court there was boundless waste ; throughout his dominions, wretchedness and disorder. He had been, under the skilful management of the English government, gradually sinking from the rank of an independent prince to that of a vassal of the Company. It was only by the help of a British brigade that he could be secure from the aggressions of neighbours who despised his weakness, and from the vengeance of subjects who detested his tyranny. A brigade was furnished, and he engaged to defray the charge of paying and maintaining it. From that time his independence was at an end. Hastings was not a man to lose the advantage which he had thus gained. The Nabob soon began to complain of the burden which he had undertaken to bear. His revenues, he said, were falling off ; his servants were unpaid ; he could no longer support the expense of the arrangement which he had sanctioned. Hastings would not listen to these representations. The Vizier, he said, had invited the Government of Bengal to send him troops, and had promised to pay for them. The troops had been sent. How long the troops were to remain in Oude was a matter not settled by the treaty. It remained, therefore, to be settled between the contracting parties. But the contracting parties differed. Who then must decide ? The stronger.

Hastings also argued that, if the English force was withdrawn, Oude would certainly become a prey to anarchy, and would probably be overrun by a Mahratta army. That the finances of Oude were embarrassed, he admitted. But he contended, not without reason, that the embarrassment was to be attributed to the incapacity and vices of Asaph-ul-Dowlah himself, and that if less were spent on the troops,

the only effect would be that more would be squandered on worthless favourites.

Hastings had intended, after settling the affairs of Benares, to visit Lucknow, and there to confer with Asaph-ul-Dowlah. But the obsequious courtesy of the Nabob Vizier prevented this visit. With a small train he hastened to meet the Governor-General. An interview took place in the fortress which, from the crest of the precipitous rock of Chunar, looks down on the waters of the Ganges.

At first sight it might appear impossible that the negotia- 10
tion should come to an amicable close. Hastings wanted an extraordinary supply of money. Asaph-ul-Dowlah wanted to obtain a remission of what he already owed. Such a difference seemed to admit of no compromise. There was, however, one course satisfactory to both sides, one course by which it was possible to relieve the finances both of Oude and of Bengal; and that course was adopted. It was simply this, that the Governor-General and the Nabob Vizier should join to rob a third party; and the third party whom they determined to rob was the parent of one of the robbers. 20

The mother of the late Nabob, and his wife, who was the mother of the present Nabob, were known as the Begums or Princesses of Oude. They had possessed great influence over Sujah Dowlah, and had, at his death, been left in possession of a splendid dotation. The domains of which they received the rents and administered the government were of wide extent. The treasure hoarded by the late Nabob, a treasure which was popularly estimated at near three millions sterling, was in their hands. They continued to occupy his favourite palace at Fyzabad, the Beautiful Dwelling; while Asaph-ul- 30
Dowlah held his court in the stately Lucknow, which he had built for himself on the shores of the Goomti, and had adorned with noble mosques and colleges.

Asaph-ul-Dowlah had already extorted considerable sums from his mother. She had at length appealed to the English; and the English had interfered. A solemn compact had been made, by which she consented to give her son some pecuniary assistance, and he in his turn promised never to commit any further invasion of her rights. This compact was formally guaranteed by the government of Bengal. But times had 40
changed; money was wanted; and the power which had

given the guarantee was not ashamed to instigate the spoiler to excesses such that even he shrank from them.

It was necessary to find some pretext for a confiscation inconsistent, not merely with plighted faith, not merely with the ordinary rules of humanity and justice, but also with that great law of filial piety which, even in the wildest tribes of savages, even in those more degraded communities which whither under the influence of a corrupt half-civilization, retains a certain authority over the human mind. A pretext
10 was the last thing that Hastings was likely to want. The insurrection at Benares had produced disturbances at Oude. These disturbances it was convenient to impute to the Princesses. Evidence for the imputation there was scarcely any ; unless reports wandering from one mouth to another, and gaining something by every transmission, may be called evidence. The accused were furnished with no charge ; they were permitted to make no defence ; for the Governor-General wisely considered that, if he tried them, he might not be able to find a ground for plundering them. It was agreed
20 between him and the Nabob Vizier that the noble ladies should, by a sweeping act of confiscation, be stripped of their domains and treasures for the benefit of the Company, and that the sums thus obtained should be accepted by the government of Bengal in satisfaction of its claims on the government of Oude.

While Asaph-ul-Dowlah was at Chunar he was completely subjugated by the clear and commanding intellect of the English statesman. But, when they had separated, the Vizier began to reflect with uneasiness on the engagements
30 into which he had entered. His mother and grandmother protested and implored. His heart, deeply corrupted by absolute power and licentious pleasures, yet not naturally unfeeling, failed him in this crisis. Even the English resident at Lucknow, though hitherto devoted to Hastings, shrank from extreme measures. But the Governor-General was inexorable. He wrote to the resident in terms of the greatest severity, and declared that if the spoliation which had been agreed upon were not instantly carried into effect, he would himself go to Lucknow, and do that from which feebler minds
40 recoil with dismay. The resident, thus menaced, waited on his highness, and insisted that the treaty of Chunar should be carried into full and immediate effect. Asaph-ul-Dowlah

yielded, making at the same time a solemn protestation that he yielded to compulsion. The lands were resumed ; but the treasure was not so easily obtained. It was necessary to use violence. A body of the Company's troops marched to Fyzabad, and forced the gates of the palace. The Princesses were confined to their own apartments. But still they refused to submit. Some more stringent mode of coercion was to be found. A mode was found, of which, even at this distance of time, we cannot speak without shame and sorrow.

There were at Fyzabad two ancient men, belonging to that 10 unhappy class which a practice, of immemorial antiquity in the East, has excluded from the pleasures of love and from the hope of posterity. It has always been held in Asiatic courts that beings thus estranged from sympathy with their kind are those whom princes may most safely trust. Sujah Dowlah had been of this opinion. He had given his entire confidence to the two eunuchs ; and after his death they remained at the head of the household of his widow.

These men were, by the orders of the British government, seized, imprisoned, ironed, starved almost to death, in order 20 to extort money from the Princesses. After they had been two months in confinement, their health gave way. They implored permission to take a little exercise in the garden of their prison. The officer who was in charge of them stated that, if they were allowed this indulgence, there was not the smallest chance of their escaping, and that their irons really added nothing to the security of the custody in which they were kept. He did not understand the plan of his superiors. Their object in these inflictions was not security but torture ; and all mitigation was refused. Yet this was not the worst. 30 It was resolved by an English government that these two infirm old men should be delivered to the tormentors. For that purpose they were removed to Lucknow. What horrors their dungeon there witnessed can only be guessed. But there remains on the records of Parliament this letter, written by a British resident to a British soldier :—

“Sir, the Nabob having determined to inflict corporal punishment upon the prisoners under your guard, this is to desire that his officers, when they shall come, may have free access to the prisoners, and be permitted to do with them as 40 they shall see proper.”

While these barbarities were perpetrated at Lucknow, the

Princesses were still under duress at Fyzabad. Food was allowed to enter their apartments only in such scanty quantities that their female attendants were in danger of perishing with hunger. Month after month this cruelty continued, till at length, after twelve hundred thousand pounds had been wrung out of the Princesses, Hastings began to think that he had really got to the bottom of their coffers, and that no rigour could extort more. Then at length the wretched men who were detained at Lucknow regained their liberty. When
10 their irons were knocked off and the doors of their prison opened, their quivering lips, the tears which ran down their cheeks, and the thankgivings which they poured forth to the common Father of Mussulmans and Christians, melted even the stout hearts of the English warriors who stood by.

But we must not forget to do justice to Sir Elijah Impey's conduct on this occasion. It was not indeed easy for him to intrude himself into a business so entirely alien from all his official duties. But there was something inexpressibly alluring, we must suppose, in the peculiar rankness of the infamy
20 which was then to be got at Lucknow. He hurried thither as fast as relays of palanquin-bearers could carry him. A crowd of people came before him with affidavits against the Begums, ready drawn in their hands. Those affidavits he did not read. Some of them, indeed, he could not read, for they were in the dialects of Northern India, and no interpreter was employed. He administered the oath to the deponents with all possible expedition, and asked not a single question, not even whether they had perused the statements to which they swore. This work performed, he got again
30 into his palanquin and posted back to Calcutta, to be in time for the opening of term. The cause was one which, by his own confession, lay altogether out of his jurisdiction. Under the charter of justice, he had no more right to inquire into crimes committed by Asiatics in Oude than the Lord President of the Court of Session of Scotland to hold an assize at Exeter. He had no right to try the Begums, nor did he pretend to try them. With what object, then, did he undertake so long a journey? Evidently in order that he might give, in an irregular manner, that sanction which in a regular manner
40 he could not give to the crimes of those who had recently hired him; and in order that a confused mass of testimony which he did not sift, which he did not even read, might

acquire an authority not properly belonging to it, from the signature of the highest judicial functionary in India.

The time was approaching, however, when he was to be stripped of that robe which has never, since the Revolution, been disgraced so foully as by him. The state of India had for sometime occupied much of the attention of the British Parliament. Towards the close of the American war two committees of the Commons sat on Eastern affairs. In one Edmund Burke took the lead. The other was under the presidency of the able and versatile Henry Dundas, then Lord Advocate of Scotland. Great as are the changes which, during the last sixty years, have taken place in our Asiatic dominions, the reports which those committees laid on the table of the House will still be found most interesting and instructive. 10

There was as yet no connection between the Company and either of the great parties of the State. The ministers had no motive to defend Indian abuses. On the contrary, it was for their interest to show, if possible, that the government and patronage of our Oriental empire might, with advantage be transferred to themselves. The votes, therefore, which, in consequence of the reports made by the two committees, were passed by the Commons, breathed the spirit of stern and indignant justice. The severest epithets were applied to several of the measures of Hastings, especially to the Rohilla war; and it was resolved, on the motion of Mr. Dundas, that the Company ought to recall a Governor-General who had brought such calamities on the Indian people, and such dishonour on the British name. An Act was passed for limiting the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. The bargain which Hastings had made with the Chief Justice was condemned in the strongest terms, and an address was presented to the King, praying that Impey might be summoned home to answer for his misdeeds. 20 30

Impey was recalled by a letter from the Secretary of State. But the proprietors of India stock resolutely refused to dismiss Hastings from their service; and passed a resolution affirming, what was undeniably true, that they were intrusted by law with the right of naming and removing their Governor-General, and that they were not bound to obey the directions of a single branch of the legislature with respect to such nomination or removal. 40

Thus supported by his employers, Hastings remained at the head of the government of Bengal till the spring of 1785. His administration, so eventful and stormy, closed in almost perfect quiet. In the Council there was no regular opposition to his measures. Peace was restored to India. The Mahratta war had ceased. Hyder was no more. A treaty had been concluded with his son, Tippoo ; and the Carnatic had been evacuated by the armies of Mysore. Since the termination of the American war, England had no European
10 enemy or rival in the Eastern seas.

On a general review of the long administration of Hastings, it is impossible to deny that, against the great crimes by which it is blemished, we have to set off great public services. England had passed through a perilous crisis. She still, indeed, maintained her place in the foremost rank of European powers ; and the manner in which she had defended herself against fearful odds had inspired surrounding nations with a high opinion both of her spirit and of her strength. Nevertheless, in every part of the world, except
20 one, she had been a loser. Not only had she been compelled to acknowledge the independence of thirteen colonies peopled by her children, and to conciliate the Irish by giving up the right of legislating for them ; but in the Mediterranean, in the Gulf of Mexico, on the coast of Africa, on the continent of America, she had been compelled to cede the fruits of her victories in former wars. Spain regained Minorca and Florida ; France regained Senegal, Goree, and several West Indian Islands. The only quarter of the world in which Britain had lost nothing was the quarter in which her inter-
30 ests had been committed to the care of Hastings. In spite of the utmost exertions both of European and Asiatic enemies, the power of our country in the East had been greatly augmented. Benares was subjected ; the Nabob Vizier reduced to vassalage. That our influence had been thus extended, nay, that Fort William and Fort St. George had not been occupied by hostile armies, was owing, if we may trust the general voice of the English in India, to the skill and resolution of Hastings.

His internal administration, with all its blemishes, gives
40 him a title to be considered as one of the most remarkable men in our history. He dissolved the double government. He transferred the direction of affairs to English hands. Out

of a frightful anarchy he educed at least a rude and imperfect order. The whole organization by which justice was dispensed, revenue collected, peace maintained throughout a territory not inferior in population to the dominions of Lewis the Sixteenth or the Emperor Joseph, was formed and superintended by him. He boasted that every public office, without exception, which existed when he left Bengal, was his creation. It is quite true that this system, after all the improvements suggested by the experience of sixty years, still needs improvement, and that it was at first far more defective 10 than it now is. But whoever seriously considers what it is to construct from the beginning the whole of a machine so vast and complex as a government, will allow that what Hastings effected deserves high admiration. To compare the most celebrated European ministers to him seems to us as unjust as it would be to compare the best baker in London with Robinson Crusoe, who, before he could bake a single loaf, had to make his plough and his harrow, his fences and his scarecrows, his sickle and his flail, his mill and his oven.

The just fame of Hastings rises still higher when we reflect 20 that he was not bred a statesman ; that he was sent from school to a counting-house ; and that he was employed during the prime of his manhood as a commercial agent, far from all intellectual society.

Nor must we forget that all, or almost all, to whom, when placed at the head of affairs, he could apply for assistance, were persons who owed as little as himself, or less than himself, to education. A minister in Europe finds himself, on the first day on which he commences his functions, surrounded by experienced public servants, the depositaries of official 30 traditions. Hastings had no such help. His own reflection, his own energy, were to supply the place of all Downing Street and Somerset House. Having had no facilities for learning, he was forced to teach. He had first to form himself, and then to form his instruments ; and this not in a single department, but in all the departments of the administration.

It must be added, that while engaged in this most arduous task, he was constantly trammelled by orders from home, and frequently borne down by a majority in Council. The preser- 40 vation of an empire from a formidable combination of foreign enemies, the construction of a government in all its parts,

were accomplished by him, while every ship brought out bales of censure from his employers, and while the records of every consultation were filled with acrimonious minutes by his colleagues. We believe that there never was a public man whose temper was so severely tried ; not Marlborough, when thwarted by the Dutch Deputies ; not Wellington, when he had to deal at once with the Portuguese Regency, the Spanish Juntas, and Mr. Percival. But the temper of Hastings was equal to almost any trial. It was not sweet ; but it was
10 calm. Quick and vigorous as his intellect was, the patience with which he endured the most cruel vexations till a remedy could be found resembled the patience of stupidity. He seems to have been capable of resentment, bitter and long enduring ; yet his resentment so seldom hurried him into any blunder that it may be doubted whether what appeared to be revenge was anything but policy.

The effect of this singular equanimity was, that he always had the full command of all the resources of one of the most fertile minds that ever existed. Accordingly no complication
20 of perils and embarrassments could perplex him. For every difficulty he had a contrivance ready ; and, whatever may be thought of the justice and humanity of some of his contrivances, it is certain that they seldom failed to serve the purpose for which they were designed.

Together with this extraordinary talent for devising expedients, Hastings possessed, in a very high degree, another talent scarcely less necessary to a man in his situation ; we mean the talent for conducting political controversy. It is as necessary to an English statesman in the East that he should
30 be able to write, as it is to a minister in this country that he should be able to speak. It is chiefly by the oratory of a public man here that the nation judges of his powers. It is from the letters and reports of a public man in India that the dispensers of patronage form their estimate of him. In each case, the talent which receives peculiar encouragement is developed, perhaps at the expense of the other powers. In this country we sometimes hear men speak above their abilities. It is not very unusual to find gentlemen in the Indian service who write above their abilities. The English poli-
40 tician is a little too much of a debater ; the Indian politician a little too much of an essayist.

Of the numerous servants of the Company who have dis-

tinguished themselves as framers of minutes and despatches, Hastings stands at the head. He was indeed the person who gave to the official writing of the Indian governments the character which it still retains. He was matched against no common antagonist. But even Francis was forced to acknowledge, with sullen and resentful candour, that there was no contending against the pen of Hastings. And, in truth, the Governor-General's power of making out a case, of perplexing what it was inconvenient that people should understand, and of setting in the clearest point of view whatever would bear the light, was incomparable. His style must be praised with some reservation. It was in general forcible, pure, and polished ; but it was sometimes, though not often, turgid, and on one or two occasions even bombastic. Perhaps the fondness of Hastings for Persian literature may have tended to corrupt his taste. 10

And, since we have referred to his literary tastes, it would be most unjust not to praise the judicious encouragement which, as a ruler, he gave to liberal studies and curious researches. His patronage was extended, with prudent generosity, to voyages, travels, experiments, publications. He did little, it is true, towards introducing into India the learning of the West. To make the young natives of Bengal familiar with Milton and Adam Smith, to substitute the geography, astronomy, and surgery of Europe for the dotages of the Brahminical superstition, or for the imperfect science of ancient Greece transfused through Arabian expositions, this was a scheme reserved to crown the beneficent administration of a far more virtuous ruler. Still, it is impossible to refuse high commendation to a man who, taken from a ledger 30 to govern an empire, overwhelmed by public business, surrounded by people as busy as himself, and separated by thousands of leagues from almost all literary society, gave, both by his example and by his munificence, a great impulse to learning. In Persian and Arabic literature he was deeply skilled. With the Sanscrit he was not himself acquainted ; but those who first brought that language to the knowledge of European students owed much to his encouragement. It was under his protection that the Asiatic Society commenced its honourable career. That distinguished body selected him 40 to be its first president, but, with excellent taste and feeling, he declined the honour in favour of St. William Jones. But

the chief advantage which the student of Oriental letters derived from his patronage remains to be mentioned. The Pundits of Bengal had always looked with great jealousy on the attempts of foreigners to pry into those mysteries which were locked up in the sacred dialect. The Brahminical religion had been persecuted by the Mahommedans. What the Hindoos knew of the spirit of the Portuguese Government might warrant them in apprehending persecution from Christians. That apprehension the wisdom and moderation of Hastings removed. He was the first foreign ruler who succeeded in gaining the confidence of the hereditary priests of India, and who induced them to lay open to English scholars the secrets of the old Brahminical theology and jurisprudence.

It is, indeed, impossible to deny that in the great art of inspiring large masses of human beings with confidence and attachment, no ruler ever surpassed Hastings. If he had made himself popular with the English by giving up the Bengalees to extortion and oppression, or, if, on the other hand, he had conciliated the Bengalees and alienated the English, there would have been no cause for wonder. What is peculiar to him is that, being the chief of a small band of strangers, who exercised boundless power over a great indigenous population, he made himself beloved both by the subject many and by the dominant few. The affection felt for him by the civil service was singularly ardent and constant. Through all his disasters and perils, his brethren stood by him with steadfast loyalty. The army, at the same time, loved him as armies have seldom loved any but the greatest chiefs who have led them to victory. Even in his disputes with distinguished military men, he could always count on the support of the military profession. While such was his empire over the hearts of his countrymen, he enjoyed among the natives a popularity such as other Governors have perhaps better merited, but such as no other Governor has been able to attain. He spoke their vernacular dialects with facility and precision. He was intimately acquainted with their feelings and usages. On one or two occasions, for great ends, he deliberately acted in defiance of their opinion; but on such occasions he gained more in their respect than he lost in their love. In general, he carefully avoided all that could shock their national or religious prejudices. His administra-

tion was, indeed, in many respects faulty ; but the Bengalee standard of good government was not high. Under the Nabobs, the hurricane of Mahratta cavalry had passed annually over the rich alluvial plain. But even the Mahratta shrank from a conflict with the mighty children of the sea ; and the immense rice harvests of the Lower Ganges were safely gathered in under the protection of the English sword. The first English conquerors had been more rapacious and merciless even than the Mahrattas ; but that generation had passed away. Defective as was the police, heavy as were the public burdens, it is probable that the oldest man in Bengal could not recollect a season of equal security and prosperity. For the first time within living memory the province was placed under a government strong enough to prevent others from robbing, and not inclined to play the robber itself. These things inspired good-will. At the same time, the constant success of Hastings, and the manner in which he extricated himself from every difficulty, made him an object of superstitious admiration ; and the more than regal splendour which he sometimes displayed dazzled a people who have much in common with children. Even now, after the lapse of more than fifty years, natives of India still talk of him as the greatest of the English ; and nurses sing children to sleep with a jingling ballad about the fleet horses and richly caparisoned elephants of Sahib Warren Hostein.

The gravest offence of which Hastings was guilty did not affect his popularity with the people of Bengal ; for those offences were committed against neighbouring states. Those offences, as our readers must have perceived, we are not disposed to vindicate ; yet, in order that the censure may be justly apportioned to the transgression, it is fit that the motive of the criminal should be taken into consideration. The motive which prompted the worst acts of Hastings was misdirected and ill-regulated public spirit. The rules of justice, the sentiments of humanity, the plighted faith of treaties, were in his view as nothing, when opposed to the immediate interest of the State. This is no justification, according to the principles either of morality, or of what we believe to be identical with morality, namely, far-sighted policy. Nevertheless, the common sense of mankind, which in questions of this sort seldom goes far wrong, will always recognize a distinction between crimes which originate in an inordinate zeal

for the commonwealth, and crimes which originate in selfish cupidity. To the benefit of this distinction Hastings is fairly entitled. There is, we conceive, no reason to suspect that the Rohilla war, the revolution of Benares, or the spoliation of the Princesses of Oude, added a rupee to his fortune. We will not affirm that, in all pecuniary dealings, he showed that punctilious integrity, that dread of the faintest appearance of evil, which is now the glory of the Indian civil service. But when the school in which he had been trained, and the temptations to which he was exposed are considered, we are more inclined to praise him for his general uprightness with respect to money, than rigidly to blame him for a few transactions which would now be called indelicate and irregular, but which even now would hardly be designated as corrupt. A rapacious man he certainly was not. Had he been so, he would infallibly have returned to his country the richest subject in Europe. We speak within compass when we say that, without applying any extraordinary pressure, he might easily have obtained from the zemindars of the Companies provinces and from neighbouring princes, in the course of thirteen years, more than three millions sterling, and might have outshone the splendour of Carlton House and of the *Palais Royal*. He brought home a fortune such as a Governor-General, fond of state and careless of thrift, might easily, during so long a tenure of office, save out of his legal salary. Mrs. Hastings, we are afraid, was less scrupulous. It was generally believed that she accepted presents with great alacrity, and that she thus formed, without the connivance of her husband, a private hoard amounting to several lacs of rupees. We are the more inclined to give credit to this story because Mr. Gleig, who cannot but have heard it, does not, as far as we have observed, notice or contradict it.

The influence of Mrs. Hastings over her husband was indeed such that she might easily have obtained much larger sums than she was ever accused of receiving. At length her health began to give way; and the Governor-General, much against his will, was compelled to send her to England. He seems to have loved her with that love which is peculiar to men of strong minds, to men whose affection is not easily won or widely diffused. The talk of Calcutta ran for some time on the luxurious manner in which he fitted up the round-house of an Indiaman for her accommodation, on the profusion

of sandal-wood and carved ivory which adorned her cabin, and on the thousands of rupees which had been expended in order to procure for her the society of an agreeable female companion during the voyage. We may remark here that the letters of Hastings to his wife are exceedingly characteristic. They are tender, and full of indications of esteem and confidence ; but, at the same time, a little more ceremonious than is usual in so intimate a relation. The solemn courtesy with which he compliments "his elegant Marian" reminds us now and then of the dignified air with which Sir Charles Grandison bowed over Miss Byron's hand in the cedar parlour. 10

After some months Hastings prepared to follow his wife to England. When it was announced that he was about to quit his office, the feeling of the society which he had so long governed manifested itself by many signs. Addresses poured in from Europeans and Asiatics, from civil functionaries, soldiers, and traders. On the day on which he delivered up the keys of office, a crowd of friends and admirers formed a lane to the quay where he embarked. Several barges escorted him far down the river, and some attached friends refused to quit him till the low coast of Bengal was fading from the view, and till the pilot was leaving the ship. 20

Of his voyage little is known, except that he amused himself with books and with his pen ; and that among the compositions by which he beguiled the tediousness of that long leisure, was a pleasing imitation of Horace's *Otium Divos rogat*. This little poem was inscribed to Mr. Shore, afterwards Lord Teignmouth, a man of whose integrity, humanity and honour it is impossible to speak to highly, but who, like some other excellent members of the civil service, extended to the conduct of his friend Hastings an indulgence of which his own conduct never stood in need. 30

The voyage was, for those times, very speedy. Hastings was little more than four months on the sea. In June, 1785, he landed at Plymouth, posted to London, appeared at Court, paid his respects in Leadenhall Street, and then retired with his wife to Cheltenham.

He was greatly pleased with his reception. The King treated him with a marked distinction. The Queen, who had already incurred much censure on account of the favour which, in spite of the ordinary severity of her virtue, she 40

had shown to the "elegant Marian," was not less gracious to Hastings. The Directors received him in a solemn sitting, and their chairman read to him a vote of thanks, which they had passed without one dissentient voice. "I find myself," said Hastings, in a letter written about a quarter of a year after his arrival in England, "I find myself everywhere, and universally, treated with evidences, apparent even to my own observation, that I possess the good opinion of my country."

The confident and exulting tone of his correspondence
10 about this time is the more remarkable because he had already received ample notice of the attack which was in preparation. Within a week after he landed at Plymouth, Burke gave notice in the House of Commons of a motion seriously affecting a gentleman lately returned from India. The session, however, was then so far advanced that it was impossible to enter on so extensive and important a subject.

Hastings, it is clear, was not sensible of the danger of his position. Indeed, that sagacity, that judgment, that readiness in devising expedients, which had distinguished him in
20 the East, seemed now to have forsaken him; not that his abilities were at all impaired; not that he was not still the same man who had triumphed over Francis and Nuncomar; who had made the Chief Justice and the Nabob Vizier his tools; who had deposed Cheyte Sing; and repelled Hyder Ali. But an oak, as Mr. Grattan finely said, should not be transplanted at fifty. A man who, having left England when a boy, returns to it after thirty or forty years passed in India, will find, be his talents what they may, that he has much both to learn and to unlearn before he can take a place among
30 English statesmen. The working of a representative system, the war of parties, the arts of debate, the influence of the press, are startling novelties to him. Surrounded on every side by new machines and new tactics, he is as much bewildered as Hannibal would have been at Waterloo, or Themistocles at Trafalgar. His very acuteness deludes him. His very vigor causes him to stumble. The more correct his maxims, when applied to the state of society to which he is accustomed, the more certain they are to lead him astray. This was strikingly the case with Hastings. In India he had
40 a bad hand; but he was master of the game, and he won every stake, In England he held excellent cards, if he had

known how to play them ; and it was chiefly by his own errors that he was brought to the verge of ruin.

Of all his errors, the most serious was perhaps the choice of a champion. Clive, in similar circumstances, had made a singularly happy selection. He put himself into the hands of Webberburn, afterwards Lord Loughborough, one of the few great advocates who have also been great in the House of Commons. To the defence of Clive, therefore, nothing was wanting, neither learning nor knowledge of the world, neither forensic acuteness nor that eloquence which charms 10 political assemblies. Hastings intrusted his interests to a very different person, a major in the Bengal army, named Scott. This gentleman had been sent over from India some time before as the agent of the Governor-General. It was rumoured that his services were rewarded with Oriental munificence ; and we believe that he received much more than Hastings could conveniently spare. The Major obtained a seat in Parliament, and was there regarded as the organ of his employer. It was evidently impossible that a gentleman so situated could speak with the authority which belongs to 20 an independent position. Nor had the agent of Hastings the talents necessary for obtaining the ear of an assembly which, accustomed to listen to great orators, had naturally become fastidious. He was always on his legs ; he was very tedious, and he had only one topic, the merits and wrongs of Hastings. Everybody who knows the House of Commons will easily guess what followed. The Major was soon considered as the greatest bore of his time. His exertions were not confined to Parliament. There was hardly a day on which the newspapers did not contain some puff upon Hastings, signed 30 *Asiaticus* or *Bengalenis*, but known to be written by the indefatigable Scott ; and hardly a month in which some bulky pamphlet on the same subject, and from the same pen, did not pass to the trunk-makers and the pastry-cooks. As to this gentleman's capacity for conducting a delicate question through Parliament, our readers will want no evidence beyond that which they will find in letters preserved in these volumes. We will give a single specimen of his temper and judgment. He designated the greatest man then living as "that reptile, Mr. Burke."

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In spite, however, of this unfortunate choice, the general aspect of affairs was favourable to Hastings. The King was

on his side. The Company and its servants were zealous in his cause. Among public men he had many ardent friends. Such were Lord Mansfield, who had outlived the vigour of his body, but not that of his mind ; and Lord Landsdowne, who, though unconnected with any party, retained the importance which belongs to great talents and knowledge. The ministers were generally believed to be favourable to the late Governor-General. They owed their power to the clamour which had been raised against Mr. Fox's East India Bill.

10 The authors of that bill, when accused of invading vested rights, and of setting up powers unknown to the constitution, had defended themselves by pointing to the crimes of Hastings, and by arguing that abuses so extraordinary justified extraordinary measures. Those who, by opposing that bill, had raised themselves to the head of affairs, would naturally be inclined to extenuate the evils which had been made the plea for administering so violent a remedy ; and such, in fact, was their general disposition. The Lord Chancellor Thurlow, in particular, whose great place and force of intellect

20 gave him a weight in the government inferior only to that of Mr. Pitt, espoused the cause of Hastings with indecorous violence. Mr. Pitt, though he had censured many parts of the Indian system, had studiously abstained from saying a word against the late chief of the Indian government. To Major Scott, indeed, the young minister had in private extolled Hastings as a great, a wonderful man, who had the highest claims on the government. There was only one objection to granting all that so eminent a servant of the public could ask. The resolution of censure still remained on the

30 journals of the House of Commons. That resolution was, indeed, unjust ; but, till it was rescinded, could the minister advise the King to bestow any mark of approbation on the person censured ? If Major Scott is to be trusted, Mr. Pitt declared that this was the only reason which prevented the advisers of the Crown from conferring a peerage on the late Governor-General. Mr. Dundas was the only important member of the administration who was deeply committed to a different view on the subject. He had moved the resolution which created the difficulty ; but even from him little was to

40 be apprehended. Since he had presided over the committee on Eastern affairs, great changes had taken place. He was surrounded by new allies ; he had fixed his hopes on new

objects ; and whatever may have been his good qualities—and he had many—flattery itself never reckoned rigid consistency in the number.

From the ministry, therefore, Hastings had every reason to expect support ; and the ministry was very powerful. The Opposition was loud and vehement against him. But the Opposition, though formidable from the wealth and influence of some of its members, and from the admirable talents and eloquence of others, was outnumbered in Parliament and odious throughout the country. Nor, as far as we can judge, 10 was the Opposition generally desirous to engage in so serious an undertaking as the impeachment of an Indian Governor. Such an impeachment must last for years. It must impose on the chiefs of the party an immense load of labour. Yet it could scarcely, in any manner, affect the event of the great political game. The followers of the Coalition were therefore more inclined to revile Hastings than to prosecute him. They lost no opportunity of coupling his name with the names of the most hateful tyrants of whom history makes 20 mention. The wits of Brooks's aimed their keenest sarcasms both at his public and at his domestic life. Some fine diamonds which he had presented, as it was rumoured, to the royal family, and a certain richly-carved ivory bed which the Queen had done him the honour to accept from him, were favourite subjects of ridicule. One lively poet proposed that the great acts of the fair Marian's present husband should be immortalised by the pencil of his predecessor ; and that Imhoff should be employed to embellish the House of Commons with paintings of the bleeding Rohillas, of Nuncomar swinging, of Cheyte Sing letting himself down to the Ganges. 30 Another, in an exquisitely humorous parody of Virgil's third eclogue, propounded the question, what that mineral could be of which the rays had power to make the most austere of princesses the friend of a wanton. A third described, with gay malevolence, the gorgeous appearance of Mrs. Hastings at St. James's ; the galaxy of jewels, torn from Indian Begums, which adorned her head-dress ; her necklace gleaming with future votes ; and the depending questions that shone upon her ears. Satirical attacks of this description, and perhaps a motion for a vote of censure, would have satisfied the 40 great body of the Opposition. But there were two men

whose indignation was not to be so appeased — Philip Francis and Edmund Burke.

Francis had recently entered the House of Commons, and had already established a character there for industry and ability. He laboured, indeed, under one most unfortunate defect, want of fluency ; but he occasionally expressed himself with a dignity and energy worthy of the greatest orators. Before he had been many days in Parliament he incurred the bitter dislike of Pitt, who constantly treated him with as
10 much asperity as the laws of debate would allow. Neither lapse of years nor change of scene had mitigated the enmities which Francis had brought back from the East. After his usual fashion, he mistook his malevolence for virtue, nursed it, as preachers tell us that we ought to nurse our good dispositions, and paraded it on all occasions with Pharisaical ostentation.

The zeal of Burke was still fiercer, but it was far purer. Men unable to understand the elevation of his mind have tried to find out some discreditable motive for the vehemence
20 and pertinacity which he showed on this occasion ; but they have altogether failed. The idle story that he had some private slight to revenge has long been given up, even by the advocates of Hastings. Mr. Gleig supposes that Burke was actuated by party spirit, that he retained a bitter remembrance of the fall of the Coalition, that he attributed that fall to the exertions of the East India interest, and that he considered Hastings as the head and the representative of that interest. This explanation seems to be sufficiently refuted by a reference to dates. The hostility of Burke to
30 Hastings commenced long before the Coalition, and lasted long after Burke had become a strenuous supporter of those by whom the Coalition had been defeated. It began when Burke and Fox closely allied together, were attacking the influence of the Crown, and calling for peace with the American republic. It continued till Burke, alienated from Fox, and loaded with the favours of the Crown, died, preaching a crusade against the French republic. We surely cannot attribute to the events of 1784 an enmity which began in 1781, and which retained undiminished force long after persons
40 far more deeply implicated than Hastings in the events of 1784 had been cordially forgiven. And why should we look for any other explanation of Burke's conduct than that which

we find on the surface? The plain truth is, that Hastings had committed some great crimes, and that the thought of those crimes made the blood of Burke boil in his veins. For Burke was a man in whom compassion for suffering, and hatred of injustice and tyranny, were as strong as in Las Casas or Clarkson. And although in him, as in Las Casas and in Clarkson, these noble feelings were alloyed with the infirmity which belongs to human nature, he is, like them, entitled to this great praise, that he devoted years of intense labour to the service of a people with whom he had neither blood nor language, neither religion nor manners in common, and from whom no requital, no thanks, no applause could be expected. 10

His knowledge of India was such as few even of those Europeans who have passed many years in that country have attained, and such as certainly was never attained by any public man who had not quitted Europe. He had studied the history, the laws, and the usages of the East with an industry such as is seldom found united to so much genius and so much sensibility. Others have perhaps been equally laborious, and have collected an equal mass of materials. But the manner in which Burke brought his higher powers of intellect to work on statements of facts and on tables of figures was peculiar to himself. In every part of those huge bales of Indian information which repelled almost all other readers, his mind, at once philosophical and poetical, found something to instruct or to delight. His reason analysed and digested those vast and shapeless masses; his imagination animated and coloured them. Out of darkness, and dulness, and confusion, he formed a multitude of ingenious theories and vivid pictures. He had in the highest degree that noble faculty whereby man is able to live in the past and in the future, in the distant and in the unreal. India and its inhabitants were not to him, as to most Englishmen, mere names and abstractions, but a real country and a real people. The burning sun, the strange vegetation of the palm and the cocoa tree, the rice-field, the tank, the huge trees, older than the Mogul empire, under which the village crowds assemble, the thatched roof of the peasant's hut, the rich tracery of the mosque, where the imaum prays with his face to Mecca, the drums and banners and gaudy idols, the devotee swinging in the air, the graceful maiden, with the pitcher on her 20 30 40

head, descending the steps to the river-side, the black faces, the long beards, the yellow streaks of sect, the turbans and the flowing robes, the spears and the silver maces, the elephants with their canopies of state, the gorgeous palanquin of the prince and the close litter of the noble lady, all these things were to him as the objects amidst which his own life had been passed, as the objects which lay on the road between Beaconsfield and St. James's Street. All India was present to the eye of his mind, from the halls where suitors
10 laid gold and perfumes at the feet of sovereigns, to the wild moor where the gipsy camp was pitched; from the bazaar, humming like a beehive with the crowd of buyers and sellers, to the jungle where the lonely courier shakes his bunch of iron rings to scare away the hyænas. He had just as lively an idea of the insurrection at Benares as of Lord George Gordon's riots, and of the execution of Nuncomar as of the execution of Dr. Dodd. Oppression in Bengal was to him the same thing as oppression in the streets of London.

He saw that Hastings had been guilty of some most un-
20 justifiable acts. All that followed was natural and necessary in a mind like Burke's. His imagination and his passions, once excited, hurried him beyond the bounds of justice and good sense. His reason, powerful as it was, became the slave of feelings which it should have controlled. His indignation, virtuous in its origin, acquired too much of the character of personal aversion. He could see no mitigating circumstances, no redeeming merit. His temper, which, though generous and affectionate, had always been irritable, had now been made almost savage by bodily infirmities and mental vexations.
30 Conscious of great powers and great virtues, he found himself, in age and poverty, a mark for the hatred of a perfidious court and a deluded people. In Parliament his eloquence was out of date. A young generation, which knew him not, had filled the House. Whenever he rose to speak, his voice was drowned by the unseemly interruption of lads who were in their cradles when his orations on the Stamp Act called forth the applause of the great Earl of Chatham. These things had produced on his proud and sensitive spirit an effect at which we cannot wonder. He could no longer discuss any question
40 with calmness, or make allowance for honest differences of opinion. Those who think that he was more violent and acrimonious in debates about India than on other occasions are

ill-informed respecting the last years of his life. In the discussions on the Commercial Treaty with the Court of Versailles, on the Regency, on the French Revolution, he showed even more virulence than in conducting the impeachment. Indeed, it may be remarked that the very persons who called him a mischievous maniac, for condemning in burning words the Rohilla war and the spoliation of the Begums, exalted him into a prophet as soon as he began to declaim, with greater vehemence, and not with greater reason, against the taking of the Bastille and the insults offered to Marie Antoinette. To 10 us he appears to have been neither a maniac in the former case, nor a prophet in the latter, but in both cases a great and good man, led into extravagance by a sensibility which domineered over all his faculties.

It may be doubted whether the personal antipathy of Francis, or the nobler indignation of Burke, would have led their party to adopt extreme measures against Hastings if his conduct had been judicious. He should have felt that, great as his public services had been, he was not faultless, and should have been content to make his escape, without aspir- 20 ing to the honours of a triumph. He and his agent took a different view. They were impatient for the rewards which, as they conceived, were deferred only till Burke's attack should be over. They accordingly resolved to force on a decisive action with an enemy for whom, if they had been wise, they would have made a bridge of gold. On the first day of the session of 1786, Major Scott reminded Burke of the notice given in the preceding year, and asked whether it was seriously intended to bring any charge against the late Governor-General. This challenge left no course open to the Opposition, except 30 to come forward as accusers, or to acknowledge themselves calumniators. The administration of Hastings had not been so blameless, nor was the great party of Fox and North so feeble, that it could be prudent to venture on so bold a defiance. The leaders of the Opposition instantly returned the only answer which they could with honour return; and the whole party was irrevocably pledged to a prosecution.

Burke began his operations by applying for papers. Some of the documents for which he asked were refused by the ministers, who, in their debate, held language such as strongly 40 confirmed the prevailing opinion, that they intended to support Hastings. In April the charges were laid on the table. They

had been drawn by Burke with great ability, though in a form too much resembling that of a pamphlet. Hastings was furnished with a copy of the accusation ; and it was intimated to him that he might, if he thought fit, be heard in his own defence at the bar of the Commons.

Here again Hastings was pursued by the same fatality which had attended him ever since the day when he set foot on English ground. It seemed to be decreed that this man, so politic and so successful in the East, should commit nothing
10 but blunders in Europe. Any judicious adviser would have told him that the best thing which he could do would be to make an eloquent, forcible, and affecting oration at the bar of the House ; but that, if he could not trust himself to speak, and found it necessary to read, he ought to be as concise as possible. Audiences accustomed to extemporaneous debating of the highest excellence are always impatient of long written compositions. Hastings, however, sat down as he would have done at the Government House in Bengal, and prepared a paper of immense length. That paper, if recorded on the
20 consultations of an Indian administration, would have been justly praised as a very able minute. But it was now out of place. It fell flat, as the best written defence must have fallen flat, on an assembly accustomed to the animated and strenuous conflicts of Pitt and Fox. The members, as soon as their curiosity about the face and demeanour of so eminent a stranger was satisfied, walked away to dinner, and left Hastings to tell his story till midnight to the clerks and the sergeant-at-arms.

All preliminary steps having been duly taken, Burke, in the
30 beginning of June, brought forward the charge relating to the Rohilla war. He acted discreetly in placing this accusation in the van ; for Dundas had formerly moved, and the House had adopted, a resolution condemning, in the most severe terms, the policy followed by Hastings with regard to Rohilcund. Dundas had little, or rather nothing, to say in defence of his own consistency ; but he put a bold face on the matter, and opposed the motion. Among other things, he declared that, though he still thought the Rohilla war unjustifiable, he considered the services which Hastings had subsequently rendered
4 to the State as sufficient to atone even for so great an offence. Pitt did not speak, but voted with Dundas ; and Hastings

was absolved by a hundred and nineteen votes against sixty-seven.

Hastings was now confident of victory. It seemed, indeed that he had reason to be so. The Rohilla war was, of all his measures, that which his accusers might with the greatest advantage assail. It had been condemned by the Court of Directors. It had been condemned by the House of Commons. It had been condemned by Mr. Dundas, who had since become the chief minister of the Crown for Indian affairs. Yet Burke, having chosen this strong ground, had 10 been completely defeated on it. That, having failed here, he should succeed on any point, was generally thought impossible. It was rumoured at the clubs and coffee-houses that one or perhaps two more charges would be brought forward ; that if, on those charges, the sense of the House of Commons should be against impeachment, the Opposition would let the matter drop ; that Hastings would be immediately raised to the peerage, decorated with the star of the Bath, sworn of the Privy Council, and invited to lend the assistance of his talents and experience to the India Board. Lord Thurlow, 20 indeed, some months before, had spoken with contempt of the scruples which prevented Pitt from calling Hastings to the House of Lords, and had even said that, if the Chancellor of the Exchequer was afraid of the Commons, there was nothing to prevent the Keeper of the Great Seal from taking the royal pleasure about a patent of peerage. The very title was chosen. Hastings was to be Lord Daylesford. For, through all changes of scene and changes of fortune, remained unchanged his attachment to the spot which had witnessed the greatness and the fall of his family, and which had borne so 30 great a part in the first dreams of his young ambition.

But in a very few days these fair prospects were overcast. On the thirteenth of June Mr. Fox brought forward, with great ability and eloquence, the charge respecting the treatment of Cheyte Sing. Francis followed on the same side. The friends of Hastings were in high spirits when Pitt rose. With his usual abundance and felicity of language, the Minister gave his opinion on the case. He maintained that the Governor-General was justified in calling on the Rajah of Benares for pecuniary assistance, and in imposing a fine when 40 that assistance was contumaciously withheld. He also thought that the conduct of the Governor-General during

the insurrection had been distinguished by ability and presence of mind. He censured, with great bitterness, the conduct of Francis, both in India and in Parliament, as most dishonest and malignant. The necessary inference from Pitt's arguments seemed to be that Hastings ought to be honourably acquitted, and both the friends and the opponents of the Minister expected from him a declaration to that effect. To the astonishment of all parties, he concluded by saying that, though he thought it right in Hastings to fine 10 Cheyte Sing for contumacy, yet the amount of the fine was too great for the occasion. On this ground, and on this ground alone, did Mr. Pitt, applauding every other part of the conduct of Hastings with regard to Benares, declare that he should vote in favour of Mr. Fox's motion.

The House was thunderstruck, and it well might be so. For the wrong done to Cheyte Sing, even had it been as flagitious as Fox and Francis contended, was a trifle when compared with the horrors which had been inflicted on Rohilcund. But if Mr. Pitt's view of the case of Cheyte Sing 20 were correct, there was no ground for an impeachment, or even for a vote of censure. If the offence of Hastings was really no more than this, that, having a right to impose a mulct, the amount of which mulct was not defined, but was left to be settled by his discretion, he had, not for his own advantage, but for that of the state, demanded too much, was this an offence which required a criminal proceeding of the highest solemnity, a criminal proceeding to which, during sixty years, no public functionary had been subjected? We can see, we think, in what way a man of sense and integrity 30 might have been induced to take any course respecting Hastings except the course which Mr. Pitt took. Such a man might have thought a great example necessary for the preventing of injustice and for the vindicating of the national honour, and might on that ground, have voted for impeachment both on the Rohilla charge and on the Benares charge. Such a man might have thought that the offence of Hastings had been atoned for by great services, and might, on that ground, have voted against the impeachment on both charges. With great diffidence we give it as our opinion that the most 50 correct course would, on the whole, have been to impeach on the Rohilla charge and to acquit on the Benares charge. Had the Benares charge appeared to us in the same light in which

it appeared to Mr. Pitt, we should, without hesitation, have voted for acquittal on that charge. The one course which it is inconceivable that any man of a tenth part of Mr. Pitt's abilities can have honestly taken was the course which he took. He acquitted Hastings on the Rohilla charge. He softened down the Benares charge till it became no charge at all ; and then he pronounced that it contained matter for impeachment.

Nor must it be forgotten that the principal reason assigned by the ministry for not impeaching Hastings on account of the Rohilla war was this, that the delinquencies of the early part of his administration had been atoned for by the excellence of the later part. Was it not most extraordinary that men who had held this language could afterwards vote that the later part of his administration furnished matter for no less than twenty articles of impeachment ? They first represented the conduct of Hastings in 1780 and 1781 as so highly meritorious that, like works of supererogation in the Catholic theology, it ought to be efficacious for the cancelling of former offences ; and they then prosecuted him for his conduct in 1780 and 1781.

The general astonishment was the greater, because, only twenty-four hours before, the members on whom the Minister could depend had received the usual notes from the Treasury, begging them to be in their places and to vote against Mr. Fox's motion. It was asserted by Mr. Hastings that, early on the morning of the very day on which the debate took place, Dundas called on Pitt, woke him, and was closeted with him many hours. The result of this conference was a determination to give up the late Governor-General to the vengeance of the Opposition. It was impossible even for the most powerful Minister to carry all his followers with him in so strange a course. Several persons high in office, the Attorney-General, Mr. Grenville, and Lord Mulgrave, divided against Mr. Pitt. But the devoted adherents who stood by the head of the government without asking questions were sufficiently numerous to turn the scale. A hundred and nineteen members voted for Mr. Fox's motion ; seventy-nine against it. Dundas silently followed Pitt.

That good and great man, the late William Wilberforce, often related the events of this remarkable night. He described the amazement of the House, and the bitter reflections

which were muttered against the Prime Minister by some of the habitual supporters of government. Pitt himself appeared to feel that his conduct required some explanation. He left the treasury bench, sat for some time next to Mr. Wilberforce, and very earnestly declared that he had found it impossible, as a man of conscience, to stand any longer by Hastings. The business, he said, was too bad. Mr. Wilberforce, we are bound to add, fully believed that his friend was sincere, and that the suspicions to which this mysterious
10 affair gave rise were altogether unfounded.

Those suspicions, indeed, were such as it is painful to mention. The friends of Hastings, most of whom, it is to be observed, generally supported the administration, affirmed that the motive of Pitt and Dundas was jealousy. Hastings was personally a favourite with the King. He was the idol of the East India Company and of its servants. If he were absolved by the Commons, seated among the Lords, admitted to the Board of Control, closely allied with the strong-minded and imperious Thurlow, was it not almost certain that he
20 would soon draw to himself the entire management of Eastern affairs? Was it not possible that he might become a formidable rival in the cabinet? It had probably got abroad that very singular communications had taken place between Thurlow and Major Scott, and that, if the First Lord of the Treasury was afraid to recommend Hastings for a peerage, the Chancellor was ready to take the responsibility of that step on himself. Of all ministers, Pitt was the least likely to submit with patience to such an encroachment on his functions. If the Commons impeached Hastings, all danger was
30 at an end. The proceedings, however it might terminate, would probably last some years. In the meantime, the accused person would be excluded from honours and public employments, and could scarcely venture even to pay his duty at court. Such were the motives attributed by a great part of the public to the young minister, whose ruling passion was generally believed to be avarice of power.

The prorogation soon interrupted the discussions respecting Hastings. In the following year those discussions were resumed. The charge touching the spoliation of the Begums
40 was brought forward by Sheridan in a speech which was so imperfectly reported that it may be said to be wholly lost, but which was, without doubt, the most elaborately brilliant

of all the production of his ingenious mind. The impression which it produced was such as has never been equalled. He sat down, not merely amidst cheering, but amidst the loud clapping of hands, in which the Lords below the bar and the strangers in the gallery joined. The excitement of the House was such that no other speaker could obtain a hearing ; and the debate was adjourned. The ferment spread fast through the town. Within four and twenty hours Sheridan was offered a thousand pounds for the copyright of the speech if he would himself correct it for the press. The impression made 10 by this remarkable display of eloquence on severe and experienced critics, whose discernment may be supposed to have been quickened by emulation, was deep and permanent. Mr. Windham, twenty years later, said that the speech deserved all its fame, and was, in spite of some faults of taste, such as were seldom wanting either in the literary or in the parliamentary performances of Sheridan, the finest that had been delivered within the memory of man. Mr. Fox, about the same time, being asked by the late Lord Holland what was the best speech ever made in the House of Commons, 20 assigned the first place, without hesitation, to the great oration of Sheridan on the Oude charge.

When the debate was resumed, the tide ran so strongly against the accused that his friends were coughed and scraped down. Pitt declared himself for Sheridan's motion ; and the question was carried by a hundred and seventy-five votes against sixty-eight.

The Opposition, flushed with victory, and strongly supported by the public sympathy, proceeded to bring forward a succession of charges relating chiefly to pecuniary transactions. The friends of Hastings were discouraged, and having now no hope of being able to avert an impeachment, were not very strenuous in their exertions. At length the House, having agreed to twenty articles of charge, directed Burke to go before the Lords and to impeach the late Governor-General of high crimes and misdemeanours. Hastings was at the same time arrested by the Sergeant-at-arms and carried to the bar of the Peers. 30

The session was now within ten days of its close. It was, therefore, impossible that any progress could be made in the 40 trial till the next year. Hastings was admitted to bail ; and

further proceedings were postponed till the Houses should re-assemble.

- When Parliament met in the following winter, the Commons proceeded to elect a committee for managing the impeachment. Burke stood at the head; and with him were associated most of the leading members of the Opposition. But when the name of Francis was read, a fierce contention arose. It was said that Francis and Hastings were notoriously on bad terms, that they had been at feud during many
10 years, that on one occasion their mutual aversion had impelled them to seek each other's lives, and that it would be improper and indelicate to select a private enemy to be a public accuser. It was urged on the other side with great force, particularly by Mr. Windham, that impartiality, though the first duty of a judge, had never been reckoned among the qualities of an advocate; that in the ordinary administration of criminal justice among the English, the aggrieved party, the very last person who ought to be admitted into the jury-box, is the prosecutor; that what was
20 wanted in a manager was, not that he should be free from bias, but that he should be able, well informed, energetic, and active. The ability and information of Francis were admitted; and the very animosity with which he was reproached, whether a virtue or a vice, was at least a pledge for his energy and activity. It seems difficult to refute these arguments. But the inveterate hatred borne by Francis to Hastings had excited general disgust. The House decided that Francis should not be a manager. Pitt voted with the majority, Dundas with the minority.
- 30 In the meantime the preparations for the trial had proceeded rapidly, and on the thirteenth of February, 1788, the sittings of the Court commenced. There have been spectacles more dazzling to the eye, more gorgeous with jewellery and cloth of gold, more attractive to grown-up children, than that which was then exhibited at Westminster; but perhaps there never was a spectacle so well calculated to strike a highly cultivated, a reflecting, an imaginative mind. All the various kinds of interest which belong to the near and to the distant, to the present and to the past, were collected on one
40 spot and in one hour. All the talents and all the accomplishments which are developed by liberty and civilization were now displayed, with every advantage that could be derived

both from co-operation and from contrast. Every step in the proceedings carried the mind either backward, through many troubled centuries, to the days when the foundations of our constitution were laid ; or far away, over boundless seas and deserts, to dusky nations living under strange stars, worshipping strange gods, and writing strange characters from right to left. The High Court of Parliament was to sit, according to forms handed down from the days of the Plantagenets, on an Englishman accused of exercising tyranny over the lord of the holy city of Benares, and over the ladies of the princely 10 house of Oude.

The place was worthy of such a trial. It was the great hall of William Rufus, the hall which had resounded with acclamations at the inauguration of thirty kings, the hall which had witnessed the just sentence of Bacon and the just absolution of Somers, the hall where the eloquence of Stratford had for a moment awed and melted a victorious party inflamed with just resentment, the hall where Charles had confronted the High Court of Justice with the placid courage which has half redeemed his fame. Neither military nor civil 20 pomp was wanting. The avenues were lined with grenadiers. The streets were kept clear by cavalry. The peers, robed in gold and ermine, were marshalled by the heralds under Garter King-at-arms. The judges in their vestments of state attended to give advice on points of law. Near a hundred and seventy lords—three-fourths of the Upper House, as the Upper House then was—walked in solemn order from their usual place of assembling to the tribunal. The junior Baron present led the way, George Eliott, Lord Heathfield, recently ennobled for his memorable defence of Gibraltar against the 30 fleets and armies of France and Spain. The long procession was closed by the Duke of Norfolk, Earl Marshal of the Realm, by the great dignitaries, and by the brothers and sons of the King. Last of all came the Prince of Wales, conspicuous by his fine person and noble bearing. The grey old walls were hung with scarlet. The long galleries were crowded by an audience such as has rarely excited the fears or the emulation of an orator. They were gathered together from all parts of a great, free, enlightened, and prosperous empire, grace and female loveliness, wit and learning, the 40 representatives of every science and of every art. There were seated round the Queen the fair-haired young daughters

of the house of Brunswick. There the ambassadors of great kings and commonwealths gazed with admiration on a spectacle which no other country in the world could present. There Siddons, in the prime of her majestic beauty, looked with emotion on a scene surpassing all the imitations of the stage. There the historian of the Roman Empire thought of the days when Cicero pleaded the cause of Sicily against Verres, and when, before a Senate which still retained some show of freedom, Tacitus thundered against the oppressor of
10 Africa. There were seen, side by side, the greatest painter and the greatest scholar of the age. The spectacle had allured Reynolds from that easel which has preserved to us the thoughtful foreheads of so many writers and statesmen, and the sweet smiles of so many noble matrons. It had induced Parr to suspend his labours in that dark and profound mine from which he had extracted a vast treasure of erudition, a treasure too often buried in the earth, too often paraded with injudicious and inelegant ostentation, but still precious, massive, and splendid. There appeared the volup-
20 tuous charms of her to whom the heir of the throne had in secret plighted his faith. There, too, was she, the beautiful mother of a beautiful race, the Saint Cecilia, whose delicate features, lighted up by love and music, art has rescued from the common decay. There were the members of that brilliant society which quoted, criticised, and exchanged repartees under the rich peacock hangings of Mrs. Montague. And there the ladies whose lips, more persuasive than those of Fox himself, had carried the Westminster election against palace and treasury, shone round Georgiana, Duchess of
30 Devonshire.

The Serjeants made proclamation. Hastings advanced to the bar, and bent his knee. The culprit was indeed not unworthy of that great presence. He had ruled an extensive and populous country, had made laws and treaties, had sent forth armies, had set up and pulled down princes. And in his high place he had so borne himself, that all had feared him, that most had loved him, and that hatred itself could deny him no title to glory, except virtue. He looked like a great man, and not like a bad man. A person small and emaciated,
40 yet deriving dignity from a carriage which, while it indicated deference to the court, indicated also habitual self-possession and self-respect, a high and intellectual forehead, a brow

pensive, but not gloomy, a mouth of inflexible decision, a face pale and worn, but serene, on which was written, as legibly as under the picture in the council-chamber at Calcutta, *Mens æqua in arduis* ; such was the aspect with which the great Pro-consul presented himself to his judges.

His counsel accompanied him, men all of whom were afterwards raised by their talents and learning to the highest posts in their profession, the bold and strong-minded Law, afterwards Chief Justice of the King's Bench ; the more humane and eloquent Dallas, afterwards the Chief Justice of the 10 Common Pleas ; and Plomer, who, near twenty years later, successfully conducted in the same high court the defence of Lord Melville, and subsequently became Vice-Chancellor and Master of the Rolls.

But neither the culprit nor his advocates attracted so much notice as the accusers. In the midst of the blaze of red drapery, a space had been fitted up with green benches and tables for the Commons. The managers, with Burke at their head, appeared in full dress. The collectors of gossip did not fail to remark that even Fox, generally so regardless of his 20 appearance, had paid to the illustrious tribunal the compliment of wearing a bag and sword. Pitt had refused to be one of the conductors of the impeachment ; and his commanding, copious, and sonorous eloquence was wanting to that great muster of various talents. Age and blindness has unfitted Lord North for the duties of a public prosecutor ; and his friends were left without the help of his excellent sense, his tact, and his urbanity. But, in spite of the absence of these two distinguished members of the Lower House, the box in which the managers stood contained an array of speakers such 30 as perhaps had not appeared together since the great age of Athenian eloquence. There were Fox and Sheridan, the English Demosthenes and the English Hyperides. There was Burke, ignorant, indeed, or negligent of the art of adapting his reasonings and his style to the capacity and taste of his hearers, but in amplitude of comprehension and richness of imagination superior to every orator, ancient or modern. There, with eyes reverentially fixed on Burke, appeared the finest gentleman of the age, his form developed by every manly exercise, his face beaming with intelligence and spirit, 40 the ingenuous, the chivalrous, the high-souled Windham. Nor, though surrounded by such men, did the youngest manager

pass unnoticed. At an age when most of those who distinguish themselves in life are still contending for prizes and fellowships at college, he had won for himself a conspicuous place in Parliament. No advantage of fortune or connection was wanting that could set off to the height his splendid talents and his unblemished honour. At twenty-three he had been thought worthy to be ranked with the veteran statesmen who appeared as the delegates of the British Commons, at the bar of the British nobility. All who stood at that bar, save
10 him alone, are gone, culprit, advocates, accusers. To the generation which is now in the vigour of life, he is the sole representative of a great age which has passed away. But those who, within the last ten years, have listened with delight, till the morning sun shone on the tapestries of the House of Lords, to the lofty and animated eloquence of Charles Earl Grey, are able to form some estimate of the powers of a race of men among whom he was not the foremost.

The charges and the answers of Hastings were first read. The ceremony occupied two whole days, and was rendered
20 less tedious than it would otherwise have been by the silver voice and just emphasis of Cowper, the clerk of the court, a near relation of the amiable poet. On the third day Burke rose. Four sittings were occupied by his opening speech, which was intended to be a general introduction to all the charges. With an exuberance of thought and a splendour of diction which more than satisfied the highly raised expectation of the audience, he described the character and institutions of the natives of India, recounted the circumstances in which the Asiatic empire of Britain had originated, and set forth the
30 constitution of the Company and of the English Presidencies. Having thus attempted to communicate to his hearers an idea of Eastern society, as vivid as that which existed in his own mind, he proceeded to arraign the administration of Hastings as systematically conducted in defiance of morality and public law. The energy and pathos of the great orator extorted expressions of unwonted admiration from the stern and hostile Chancellor, and, for a moment, seemed to pierce even the resolute heart of the defendant. The ladies in the galleries, unaccustomed to such displays of eloquence, excited by the
40 solemnity of the occasion, and perhaps not unwilling to display their taste and sensibility, were in a state of uncontrollable emotion. Handkerchiefs were pulled out; smelling bottles

were handed round ; hysterical sobs and screams were heard ; and Mrs. Sheridan was carried out in a fit. At length the orator concluded. Raising his voice till the old arches of Irish oak resounded, " Therefore," said he, " hath it with all confidence been ordered, by the Commons of Great Britain, that I impeach Warren Hastings of high crimes and misdemeanours. I impeach him in the name of the Commons' House of Parliament, whose trust he has betrayed. I impeach him in the name of the English nation, whose ancient honour he has sullied. I impeach him in the name of the people of 10 India, whose rights he has trodden under foot, and whose country he has turned into a desert. Lastly, in the name of human nature itself, in the name of both sexes, in the name of every age, in the name of every rank, I impeach the common enemy and oppressor of all !"

When the deep murmur of various emotions had subsided, Mr. Fox rose to address the Lords respecting the course of proceedings to be followed. The wish of the accusers was that the Court would bring to a close the investigation of the first charge before the second was opened. The wish of Hastings 20 and of his counsel was that the managers should open all the charges, and produce all the evidence for the prosecution, before the defence began. The Lords retired to their own House to consider the question. The Chancellor took the side of Hastings. Lord Loughborough, who was now in opposition, supported the demand of the managers. The division showed which way the inclination of the tribunal leaned. A majority of near three to one decided in favour of the course for which Hastings contended.

When the Court sat again, Mr. Fox, assisted by Mr. Grey, 30 opened the charge respecting Cheyte Sing, and several days were spent in reading papers and hearing witnesses. The next article was that relating to the Princesses of Oude. The conduct of this part of the case was intrusted to Sheridan. The curiosity of the public to hear him was unbounded. His sparkling and highly finished declamation lasted two days ; but the Hall was crowded to suffocation during the whole time. It was said that fifty guineas had been paid for a single ticket. Sheridan, when he concluded, contrived, with a knowledge of stage effect which his father might have 40 envied, to sink back, as if exhausted, into the arms of Burke, who hugged him with the energy of generous admiration.

June was now far advanced. The session could not last much longer ; and the progress which had been made in the impeachment was not very satisfactory. There were twenty charges. On two only of these had even the case for the prosecution been heard ; and it was now a year since Hastings had been admitted to bail.

- The interest taken by the public in the trial was great when the Court began to sit, and rose to the height when Sheridan spoke on the charge relating to the Begums. From
 10 that time the excitement went down fast. The spectacle had lost the attraction of novelty. The great displays of rhetoric were over. What was behind was not of a nature to entice men of letters from their books in the morning, or to tempt ladies who had left the masquerade at two to be out of bed before eight. There remained examinations and cross examinations. There remained statements of accounts. There remained the reading of papers, filled with words unintelligible to English ears, with lacs and crores, zemindars and aumils, sunnuds and perwannahs, jaghires and nuzzurs.
 20 There remained bickerings, not always carried on with the best taste or with the best temper, between the managers of the impeachment and the counsel for the defence, particularly between Mr. Burke and Mr. Law. There remained the endless marches and countermarches of the Peers between their House and the Hall ; for as often as a point of law was to be discussed, their Lordships retired to discuss it apart and the consequence was, as a Peer wittily said, that the judges walked and the trial stood still.

- It is to be added that, in the spring of 1788, when the trial
 30 commenced, no important question, either of domestic or foreign policy, occupied the public mind. The proceeding in Westminster Hall, therefore, naturally attracted most of the attention of Parliament and of the country. It was the one great event of that season. But in the following year the King's illness, the debates on the Regency, the expectation of a change of ministry, completely diverted public attention from Indian affairs ; and within a fortnight after George the Third had returned thanks in St. Paul's for his recovery, the States-General of France met at Versailles. In the midst of
 40 the agitation produced by these events, the impeachment was for a time almost forgotten.

The trial in the Hall went on languidly. In the session of

1788, when the proceedings had the interest of novelty, and when the Peers had little other business before them, only thirty-five days were given to the impeachment. In 1789 the Regency Bill occupied the Upper House till the session was far advanced. When the King recovered, the circuits were beginning. The judges left town; the Lords waited for the return of the oracles of jurisprudence; and the consequence was that during the whole year only seventeen days were given to the case of Hastings. It was clear that the matter would be protracted to a length unprecedented in the 10 annals of criminal law.

In truth, it is impossible to deny that impeachment, though it is a fine ceremony, and though it may have been useful in the seventeenth century, is not a proceeding from which much good can now be expected. Whatever confidence may be placed in the decision of the Peers on an appeal arising out of ordinary litigation, it is certain that no man has the least confidence in their impartiality when a great public functionary, charged with a great state crime, is brought to their bar. They are all politicians. There is hardly one 20 among them whose vote on an impeachment may not be confidently predicted before a witness has been examined; and, even if it were possible to rely on their justice, they would still be quite unfit to try such a cause as that of Hastings. They sit only during half the year. They have to transact much legislative and much judicial business. The law-lords whose advice is required to guide the unlearned majority, are employed daily in administering justice elsewhere. It is impossible, therefore, that during a busy session the Upper House should give more than a few days to an impeachment. 30 To expect that their Lordships would give up partridge-shooting in order to bring the greatest delinquent to speedy justice, or to relieve accused innocence by speedy acquittal, would be unreasonable indeed. A well-constituted tribunal, sitting regularly six days in the week and nine hours in the day, would have brought the trial of Hastings to a close in less than three months. The Lords had not finished their work in seven years.

The result ceased to be matter of doubt from the time when the Lords resolved that they would be guided by the 40 rules of evidence which are received in the inferior courts of the realm. Those rules, it is well known, exclude much

information which would be quite sufficient to determine the conduct of any reasonable man in the most important transactions of private life. These rules at every assizes save scores of culprits whom judges, jury, and spectators firmly believe to be guilty. But when those rules were rigidly applied to offences committed many years before, at the distance of many thousands of miles, conviction was, of course, out of the question. We do not blame the accused and his counsel for availing themselves of every legal advantage in order to
10 obtain an acquittal ; but it is clear that an acquittal so obtained cannot be pleaded in bar of the judgment of history.

Several attempts were made by the friends of Hastings to put a stop to the trial. In 1789 they proposed a vote of censure upon Burke for some violent language which he had used respecting the death of Nuncomar and the connection between Hastings and Impey. Burke was then unpopular in the last degree both with the House and with the country. The asperity and indecency of some expressions which he had used during the debates on the Regency had annoyed even
20 his warmest friends. The vote of censure was carried ; and those who had moved it hoped that the managers would resign in disgust. Burke was deeply hurt. But his zeal for what he considered as the cause of justice and mercy triumphed over his personal feelings. He received the censure of the House with dignity and meekness, and declared that no personal mortification or humiliation should induce him to flinch from the sacred duty which he had undertaken.

In the following year the Parliament was dissolved ; and the friends of Hastings entertained a hope that the new
30 House of Commons might not be disposed to go on with the impeachment. They began by maintaining that the whole proceeding was terminated by the dissolution. Defeated on this point, they made a direct motion that the impeachment should be dropped ; but they were defeated by the combined forces of the Government and the Opposition. It was, however, resolved that, for the sake of expedition, many of the articles should be withdrawn. In truth, had not some such measure been adopted, the trial would have lasted till the defendant was in his grave.

40 At length, in the spring of 1795, the decision was pronounced, near eight years after Hastings had been brought by the Sergeant-at-Arms of the Commons to the bar of the

Lords. On the last day of this great procedure the public curiosity, long suspended, seemed to be revived. Anxiety about the judgment there could be none ; for it had been fully ascertained that there was a great majority for the defendant. Nevertheless many wished to see the pageant, and the Hall was as much crowded as on the first day. But those who, having been present on the first day, now bore a part in the proceedings of the last, were few, and most of those few were altered men.

As Hastings himself said, the arraignment had taken place 10 before one generation, and the judgment was pronounced by another. The spectator could not look at the woolsack, or at the red benches of the Peers, or at the green benches of the Commons, without seeing something that reminded him of the instability of all human things, of the instability of power and fame and life, of the more lamentable instability of friendship. The Great Seal was borne before Lord Loughborough, who, when the trial commenced, was a fierce opponent of Mr. Pitt's government, and who was now a member of that government, while Thurlow, who presided in the 20 court when it first sat, estranged from all his old allies, sat scowling among the junior Barons. Of about a hundred and sixty nobles who walked in the procession on the first day, sixty had been laid in their family vaults. Still more affecting must have been the sight of the managers' box. What had become of that fair fellowship, so closely bound together by public and private ties, so resplendent with every talent and accomplishment? It had been scattered by calamities more bitter than the bitterness of death. The great chiefs were still living, and still in the full vigour of their genius. 30 But their friendship was at an end. It had been violently and publicly dissolved, with tears and stormy reproaches. If those men, once so dear to each other, were now compelled to meet for the purpose of managing the impeachment, they met as strangers whom public business had brought together, and behaved to each other with cold and distant civility. Burke had in his vortex whirled away Windham. Fox had been followed by Sheridan and Grey.

Only twenty-nine Peers voted. Of these only six found Hastings guilty on the charges relating to Cheyte Sing and to the Begums. On other charges, the majority in his favour was still greater. On some he was unanimously absolved.

He was then called to the bar, was informed from the wool-sack that the Lords had acquitted him, and was solemnly discharged. He bowed respectfully and retired.

We have said that the decision had been fully expected. It was also generally approved. At the commencement of the trial there had been a strong and indeed unreasonable feeling against Hastings. At the close of the trial there was a feeling equally strong and equally unreasonable in his favour. One cause of the change was, no doubt, what is commonly
10 called the fickleness of the multitude, but what seems to us to be merely the general law of human nature. Both in individuals and in masses violent excitement is always followed by remission, and often by reaction. We are all inclined to depreciate whatever we have overpraised, and, on the other hand, to show undue indulgence where we have shown undue rigour. It was thus in the case of Hastings. The length of his trial, moreover, made him an object of compassion. It was thought, and not without reason, that, even if he was guilty, he was still an ill-used man, and that an impeachment
20 of eight years was more than a sufficient punishment. It was also felt that, though, in the ordinary course of criminal law, a defendant is not allowed to set off his good actions against his crimes, a great political cause should be tried on different principles, and that a man who had governed an empire during thirteen years might have done some very reprehensible things, and yet might be on the whole deserving of rewards and honours rather than of fine and imprisonment. The press, an instrument neglected by the prosecutors, was used by Hastings and his friends with great effect. Every ship, too,
30 that arrived from Madras or Bengal, brought a cuddy full of his admirers. Every gentleman from India spoke of the late Governor-General as having deserved better, and having been treated worse, than any man living. The effect of this testimony unanimously given by all persons who knew the East, was naturally very great. Retired members of the Indian services, civil and military, were settled in all corners of the kingdom. Each of them was, of course, in his own little circle, regarded as an oracle on an Indian question ; and they were, with scarcely one exception, the zealous advocates of
40 Hastings. It is to be added, that the numerous addresses to the late Governor-General, which his friends in Bengal obtained from the natives and transmitted to England, made a

considerable impression. To these addresses we attach little or no importance. That Hastings was beloved by the people whom he governed is true ; but the eulogies of pundits, zemindars, Mahommedan doctors, do not prove it to be true. For an English collector or judge would have found it easy to induce any native who could write to sign a panegyric on the most odious ruler that ever was in India. It was said that at Benares, the very place at which the acts set forth in the first article of impeachment had been committed, the natives had erected a temple to Hastings ; and this story excited a strong sensation in England. Burke's observations on the apotheosis were admirable. He saw no reason for astonishment, he said, in the incident which had been represented as so striking. He knew something of the mythology of the Brahmins. He knew that as they worshipped some gods from love, so they worshipped others from fear. He knew that they erected shrines, not only to the benignant deities of light and plenty, but also to the fiends who preside over smallpox and murder ; nor did he at all dispute the claim of Mr. Hastings to be admitted into such a Pantheon. This reply has always struck us as one of the finest that ever was made in Parliament. It is a grave and forcible argument, decorated by the most brilliant wit and fancy. 10 20

Hastings was, however, safe. But in everything except character, he would have been better off if, when first impeached, he had at once pleaded guilty, and paid a fine of fifty thousand pounds. He was a ruined man. The legal expenses of his defence had been enormous. The expenses which did not appear in his attorney's bill were perhaps larger still. Great sums had been paid to Major Scott. Great sums had been laid out in bribing newspapers, rewarding pamphleteers, and circulating tracts. Burke, so early as 1790, declared in the House of Commons that twenty thousand pounds had been employed in corrupting the press. It is certain that no controversial weapon, from the gravest reasoning to the coarsest ribaldry, was left unemployed. Logan defended the accused Governor with great ability in prose. For the lovers of verse, the speeches of the managers were burlesqued in Simpkin's letters. It is, we are afraid, indisputable that Hastings stooped so low as to court the aid of that malignant and filthy baboon John Williams, who called himself Anthony Pasquin. It was necessary to subsidise 30 40

such allies largely. The private hoards of Mrs. Hastings had disappeared. It is said that the banker to whom they had been entrusted had failed. Still if Hastings had practised strict economy, he would, after all his losses, have had a moderate competence ; but in the management of his private affairs he was imprudent. The dearest wish of his heart had always been to regain Daylesford. At length, in the very year in which his trial commenced, the wish was accomplished ; and the domain, alienated more than seventy years
10 before, returned to the descendant of its old lords. But the manor house was a ruin ; and the grounds round it had, during many years, been utterly neglected. Hastings proceeded to build, to plant, to form a sheet of water, to excavate a grotto ; and, before he was dismissed from the bar of the House of Lords, he had expended more than forty thousand pounds in adorning his seat.

The general feeling both of the Directors and of the proprietors of the East India Company was that he had great claims on them, that his services to them had been eminent,
20 and that his misfortunes had been the effect of his zeal for their interests. His friends in Leadenhall Street proposed to reimburse him the costs of his trial, and to settle on him an annuity of five thousand pounds a year. But the consent of the Board of Control was necessary ; and at the head of the Board of Control was Mr. Dundas, who had himself been a party to the impeachment, who had, on that account, been reviled with great bitterness by the adherents of Hastings, and who, therefore, was not in a very complying mood. He refused to consent to what the Directors suggested. The
30 Directors remonstrated. A long controversy followed. Hastings, in the meantime, was reduced to such distress that he could hardly pay his weekly bills. At length a compromise was made. An annuity for life of four thousand pounds was settled on Hastings ; and in order to enable him to meet pressing demands, he was to receive ten years' annuity in advance. The Company was also permitted to lend him fifty thousand pounds, to be repaid by instalments without interest. This relief, though given in the most absurd manner, was sufficient to enable the retired Governor to live in com-
40 fort, and even in luxury, if he had been a skilful manager. But he was careless and profuse, and was more than once

under the necessity of applying to the Company for assistance, which was liberally given.

He had security and affluence, but not the power and dignity which, when he landed from India, he had reason to expect. He had then looked forward to a coronet, a red riband, a seat at the Council Board, an office at Whitehall. He was then only fifty-two, and might hope for many years of bodily and mental vigour. The case was widely different when he left the bar of the Lords. He was now too old a man to turn his mind to a new class of studies and duties. He had no chance of receiving any mark of royal favour while Mr. Pitt remained in power; and, when Mr. Pitt retired, Hastings was approaching his seventieth year. 10

Once, and only once, after his acquittal, he interfered in politics; and that interference was not much to his honour. In 1804 he exerted himself strenuously to prevent Mr. Addington, against whom Fox and Pitt had combined, from resigning the Treasury. It is difficult to believe that a man, so able and energetic as Hastings, can have thought that, when Bonaparte was at Boulogne with a great army, the defence of our island could safely be intrusted to a ministry which did not contain a single person whom flattery could describe as a great statesman. It is also certain that, on the important question which had raised Mr. Addington to power, and on which he differed from both Fox and Pitt, Hastings, as might have been expected, agreed with Fox and Pitt, and was decidedly opposed to Addington. Religious intolerance has never been the vice of the Indian service, and certainly was not the vice of Hastings. But Mr. Addington had treated him with marked favour. Fox had been a principal manager of the impeachment. To Pitt it was owing that there had been an impeachment; and Hastings, we fear, was on this occasion guided by personal considerations, rather than by a regard to the public interest. 20

The last twenty-four years of his life were chiefly passed at Daylesford. He amused himself with embellishing his grounds, riding fine Arab horses, fattening prize-cattle, and trying to rear Indian animals and vegetables in England. He sent for seeds of a very fine custard-apple, from the garden of what had once been his own villa, among the green hedgerows of Allipore. He tried also to naturalise in Worcestershire the delicious leechee, almost the only fruit of Bengal which de- 40

serves to be regretted even amidst the plenty of Covent Garden. The Mogul emperors, in the time of their greatness, had in vain attempted to introduce into Hindostan the goat of the table-land of Thibet, whose down supplies the looms of Cashmere with the materials of the finest shawls. Hastings tried, with no better fortune, to rear a breed at Daylesford; nor does he seem to have succeeded better with the cattle of Bootan, whose tails are in high esteem as the best fans for brushing away the mosquitoes.

- 10 Literature divided his attention with his conservatories and his menagerie. He had always loved books, and they were now necessary to him. Though not a poet, in any high sense of the word, he wrote neat and polished lines with great facility, and was fond of exercising this talent. Indeed, if we must speak out, he seems to have been more of a Trissotin than was to be expected from the powers of his mind, and from the great part which he had played in life. We are assured in these Memoirs that the first thing which he did in the morning was to write a copy of verses. When the family
- 20 and guests assembled, the poem made its appearance as regularly as the eggs and rolls; and Mr. Gleig requires us to believe that, if from any accident Hastings came to the breakfast table without one of his charming performances in his hand, the omission was felt by all as a grievous disappointment. Tastes differ widely. For ourselves, we must say that, however good the breakfasts at Daylesford may have been,—and we are assured that the tea was of the most aromatic flavour, and that neither tongue nor venison-pasty was wanting,—we should have thought the reckoning high if we had
- 30 been forced to earn our repast by listening every day to a new madrigal or sonnet composed by our host. We are glad, however, that Mr. Gleig has preserved this little feature of character, though we think it by no means a beauty. It is good to be often reminded of the inconsistency of human nature, and to learn to look without wonder or disgust on the weaknesses which are found in the strongest minds. Dionysius in old times, Frederic in the last century, with capacity and vigour equal to the conduct of the greatest affairs, united all the little vanities and affectations of provincial blue-
- 40 stockings. These great examples may console the admirers of Hastings for the affliction of seeing him reduced to the level of the Hayleys and Sewards.

When Hastings had passed many years in retirement, and had long outlived the common age of men, he again became for a short time an object of general attention. In 1813 the charter of the East India Company was renewed ; and much discussion about Indian affairs took place in Parliament. It was determined to examine witnesses at the bar of the Commons ; and Hastings was ordered to attend. He had appeared at that bar once before. It was when he read his answer to the charges which Burke had laid on the table. Since that time twenty-seven years had elapsed ; public feel- 10
ing had undergone a complete change ; the nation had now forgotten his faults, and remembered only his services. The reappearance, too, of a man who had been among the most distinguished of a generation that had passed away, who now belonged to history, and who seemed to have risen from the dead, could not but produce a solemn and pathetic effect. The Commons received him with acclamations, ordered a chair to be set for him, and when he retired, rose and uncovered. There were, indeed, a few who did not sympathize with the general feeling. One or two of the managers of the impeach- 20
ment were present. They sate in the same seats which they had occupied when they had been thanked for the services which they had rendered in Westminster Hall ; for, by the courtesy of the House, a member who has been thanked in his place is considered as having a right always to occupy that place. These gentlemen were not disposed to admit that they had employed several of the best years of their lives in persecuting an innocent man. They accordingly kept their seats, and pulled their hats over their brows ; but the exceptions only made the prevailing enthusiasm more re- 30
markable. The Lords received the old man with similar tokens of respect. The University of Oxford conferred on him the degree of Doctor of Laws ; and, in the Sheldonian Theatre, the undergraduates welcomed him with tumultuous cheering.

These marks of public esteem were soon followed by marks of royal favour. Hastings was sworn of the Privy Council, and was admitted to a long private audience of the Prince Regent, who treated him very graciously. When the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia visited England, 40
Hastings appeared in their train both at Oxford and in the Guildhall of London, and, though surrounded by a crowd of

princes and great warriors, was everywhere received with marks of respect and admiration. He was presented by the Prince Regent both to Alexander and to Frederic William ; and His Royal Highness went so far as to declare in public that honours far higher than a seat in the Privy Council were due, and would soon be paid, to the man who had saved the British dominions in Asia. Hastings now confidently expected a peerage ; but, from some unexplained cause, he was again disappointed.

- 10 He lived about four years longer, in the enjoyment of good spirits, of faculties not impaired to any painful or degrading extent, and of health such as is rarely enjoyed by those who attain such an age. At length, on the twenty-second of August, 1818, in the eighty-sixth year of his age, he met death with the same tranquil and decorous fortitude which he had opposed to all the trials of his various and eventful life.

- With all his faults—and they were neither few nor small—only one cemetery was worthy to contain his remains. In
 20 that temple of silence and reconciliation where the enmities of twenty generations lie buried, in the great Abbey which has during many ages afforded a quiet resting-place to those whose minds and bodies have been shattered by the contentions of the Great Hall, the dust of the illustrious accused should have mingled with the dust of the illustrious accusers. This was not to be. Yet the place of interment was not ill chosen. Behind the chancel of the parish church of Daylesford, in earth which already held the bones of many chiefs of the house of Hastings, was laid the coffin of the greatest man
 30 who has ever borne that ancient and widely extended name. On that very spot, probably, fourscore years before, the little Warren, meanly clad and scantily fed, had played with the children of ploughmen. Even then his young mind had revolved plans which might be called romantic. Yet, however romantic, it is not likely that they had been so strange as the truth. Not only had the poor orphan retrieved the fallen fortunes of his line—not only had he repurchased the old lands and rebuilt the old dwelling—he had preserved and extended an empire. He had founded a polity. He had ad-
 40 ministered government and war with more than the capacity of Richelieu. He had patronized learning with the judicious liberality of Cosmo. He had been attacked by the most for-

midable combination of enemies that ever sought the destruction of a single victim; and over that combination, after a struggle of ten years, he had triumphed. He had at length gone down to his grave in the fulness of age, in peace, after so many troubles, in honour, after so much obloquy.

Those who look on his character without favour or malevolence will pronounce that, in the two great elements of all social virtue, in respect for the rights of others, and in sympathy for the sufferings of others, he was deficient. His principles were somewhat lax. His heart was somewhat 10 hard. But though we cannot with truth describe him either as a righteous or as a merciful ruler, we cannot regard without admiration the amplitude and fertility of his intellect, his rare talents for command, for administration, and for controversy, his dauntless courage, his honourable poverty, his fervent zeal for the interests of the State, his noble equanimity, tried by both extremes of fortune, and never disturbed by either.



NOTES.

I.—4-8. **Our feeling** . . 1813—Note in the illustration Macaulay's judicial attitude.

21. **Oliver Cromwell**—(1599-1658) a zealous Puritan and member of the Long Parliament (1640-53) which he forcibly dissolved, and became Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England. See Green's "Short History," Sect. Puritan England.

22. **Lely, Sir Peter**,—a famous portrait-painter of the 17th century.

27. **Curly-pated minions**—the foppish favourites of Charles I., who wore long curls, whilst the Roundheads—Cromwell's followers—wore their hair close-cropped.

II.—5. **Great Danish sea-king**—Hastings, who, at the head of a number of Norse freebooters, invaded England in the time of King Alfred, but was defeated by the latter and driven out of England in A.D 896.

12. **Renowned Chamberlain**—the favourite minister and Lord High Chamberlain of Edward IV. He was beheaded by Richard III. in 1483.

13. **White Rose**—the floral emblem of the Yorkists, in the prolonged contests (1455-85) with the Lancastrians, whose emblem was the *red* rose. This struggle for the succession to the Crown of England is known in history as the "Civil Wars of the Roses."

14. **The Tudors**—(1485-1603) the ruling dynasty in England from the accession of Henry VII. to the death of Elizabeth.

15. **Earldom of Huntingdon**—a claimant for the Earldom of this house, which had been dormant for thirty years, came forward at the beginning of the present century, and, after proving his descent from an early branch of the family, gained possession of the title and estates.

29. **Speaker Lenthall**—Speaker of the House of Commons at the time of the "Long Parliament."

III.—Isis—22. The Thames river above Oxford bears this name. The rivulet spoken of in the text is a tributary of the Thames. Daylesford is situate on this stream.

11-36. **But no cloud . . . to die**—Note this fine passage, and the essayist's manifest sympathy with young Hastings' ambition and the associations that filled the boy's mind.

42. **Westminster School**—founded by Queen Elizabeth for the education of forty boys, who are known as "Queen's Scholars."

IV.—2. **Vinny (Vincent) Bourne**—an English schoolmaster and fine Latin scholar. His pupil, Cowper, the poet, ranks him with Ovid. He died in 1747.

4. **Churchill, Charles**—(1731-64) author of *The Rosciad*, and other satirical writings.

Coleman, George [the elder] (1733-94) a translator and playwright.

Lloyd, Robert (1733-64) poet and miscellaneous writer.

Cumberland, Richard (1732-1811) a dramatist and essay writer.

10. **Shy and secluded poet**,—Wm. Cowper (1731-1800) author of "The Task," the ballad of "John Gilpin," &c. He resided for a long time at Olney, on the Ouse, in Buckinghamshire.

29-30. **Elijah Impey, Sir**,—afterwards Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Calcutta, and discredibly connected with Hastings in his arbitrary acts in India. For his many corrupt deeds he was recalled to England and impeached in 1783. Macaulay represents him as a vile tool of Hastings: note how the essayist foreshadows this by speaking of him here as a school-fag.

41. **Christ Church**,—one of the largest of the Oxford Colleges. It was founded in 1525 by Cardinal Wolsey.

V.—11. **Writership . . . Company**.—See sketch of Indian history (page xi.) The staff of the E. I. Co. consisted of merchants, factors, and writers. The *writer*, entered the service as a clerk or book-keeper; from this position he rose to be a *factor*, who inspected and bought the goods; and finally attained the position of a *merchant*, who had charge of the "Factory" or place of trade.

21. **Fort William**,—erected by the British in 1757 to protect Calcutta (on the Hooghly) the capital of Bengal. It was the scene of the massacre of the "Black Hole."

23. **Dupleix, Joseph**, (pronounced *Du-pla*) Governor of the French possessions in India. At first, a clever but unscrupulous trader; afterwards, a scheming politician and intriguer for territorial possessions and power in India; for a time successful, but ultimately unfortunate, ruined and disgraced. See Macaulay's essay on Lord Clive. Also, sketch of Indian history, (p. xii.)

25-26. **The War . . . Carnatic**. See sketch of Indian history (p. xii.)

28. **Clive, Robert**—Baron Plassey [1725-74]. See Intro. on English Composition (p. xxvii.) and Macaulay's essay.

38. **Mogul**,—the Mohammedan ruler at Delhi.

39. **Bengal, Orissa, and Bahar**.—Bengal is the largest and most populous of the twelve provinces of British India, capital, Calcutta. Orissa and Bahar, the two provinces within the presidency of Bengal; Bahar lies to the north, Orissa to the south.

VI.—6 11. **Surajah Dowlah**.—See Macaulay's essay on Lord Clive.

Dutch Company.—See sketch Indian history, (pp. xi., xii.)

12. **Nabob**.—(Corruption of *Nawab*) deputy of the Nizam, who derived his power from the Mogul rulers at Delhi.

15. **Black Hole**,—a confined gaol-room in Fort William, in which 146 English prisoners were thrust over a hot summer night, in June, 1756. All but 23 were found dead in the morning, having been suffocated or trampled to death. See an account of the atrocity in Macaulay's essay on "Lord Clive."

40. **Plassey**.—This battle, which was fought in a grove, some 70 miles north of Calcutta, practically established British rule in India. It was won by Lord Clive, June 23rd, 1757, with a small army of 2,000 Sepoys, 1,000 Europeans, and 8 cannon, against the forces of Surajah Dowlah, numbering 35,000 foot, 15,000 horse, and 50 cannon.

Meer Jaffier.—After the victory of Plassey, Dowlah was deposed from the viceroyalty of Bengal, and by his successor put to death. The British gave Jaffier the nominal rule of the Province; but he was afterwards dethroned in favour of his son-in-law, Meer Cossim. The latter, however, revolted, and at Patna massacred 2,000 Sepoys and 200 Europeans. By the battle of Buxar, won by Sir Hector Munro in 1764, Bengal was re-conquered, and both it and the adjoining province of Oude became subject to Britain. Oude was for a time restored on the payment of an enormous ransom. From this period the native rulers were for the most part puppets of the British administration at Calcutta, and the East India Co. levied on the territories of the Nabobs at its will. See essay on Lord Clive.

VII.—8-34. **On one side . . . morality**.—Note this fine passage, in which the essayist sets forth the malign influence of a dominant over a subject race.

7. **Mr. Vansittart**.—Interim Governor of Bengal in Lord Clive's absence in England (1760-65). Hastings was a member of Council at Calcutta during his administration.

34.—VIII.—30. **There was . . . freebooter**.—Note here the evils of the East India Co.'s rule at the period, and the attitude of Hastings, in taking no part in the common plunder.

42. **Rotten Boroughs**,—towns, the electorate of which could be bought by aspirants for Parliamentary honours.

VIII.—1. **St. James's Square**,—a home of fashion in the neighbourhood of St. James's Palace, London.

26. **Buccaneer**—a pirate. **Galleon**—a Spanish trading-ship.

IX.—15. **Revival of Letters**—an intellectual movement which spread over Europe at the beginning of the 16th century.

1-29. **It is to be remembered . . . intercourse**—Observe Macaulay's sympathy with culture, and his approving comment on Hastings' literary tastes, and the projects he had in his mind for extending a knowledge of Oriental languages.

18. **Company**—the East India Co.

19. **Ha'fiz and Ferdu'si**,—Persian poets, the former of the 13th, and the latter of the 10th century.

20. **Johnson, Samuel**, (1709-84)—a famous critic and lexicographer, whom Smollett, the novelist, called "The Great Cham of Literature." See Boswell's "Life of Johnson," and Macaulay's essay thereon.

32. **The Directors**—The London Managers of the East India Co.

35. **Madras**,—the capital of Madras Presidency, and the earliest settlement of the E. I. Co. in India.

X.—4. **Pagodas**—An East India coin, worth about \$2.

16. **Indiaman**—one of the old sailing ships trading to India.

XI.—10. **Franconia**—now Bavaria, in Germany.

32. **Fort St. George**—Madras.

XII.—5. **Constitutional Check**—a provision in the Constitution, or form of Government, to check abuses.

9. **Delhi**,—a wealthy city, on the Jumna, in the northern part of Hindostan, and for over 200 years the seat of the Mogul power in India.

13-16. **There was . . . Pepin**.—Note Macaulay's wealth and ready resources of illustration, though here it is rather recondite. The same illustration, almost in the same words, does duty in Macaulay's essay on Lord Clive, *p. v*.

15. **Augustulus, Odoacer**—At the period of the Fall of the Western Empire the Roman emperors were mere tools of the German generals. Odoacer, (434-493) a son of a chieftain of one of the Scyri tribes of the Danube, entered the imperial service, and in the year 475, at the head of his barbarian mercenaries, invaded Italy and demanded to be made proprietor of one-third of its soil. Romulus Augustulus, a youthful son of Orestes, was then Emperor. On Odoacer's demand being refused, his fellow-soldiers deposed Augustulus and made Odoacer King of Italy. For thirteen years he reigned with undisputed sway. In Theodoric's invasion of Italy Odoacer was repeatedly defeated, and finally perished at the hands of the Goth.

Merovingians, Charles Martel, Pepin—Merovingians a once vigorous dynasty that ruled Germany from the time of Clovis to that of Charlemagne. With the death of Dagobert (A. D. 638) the Kings became mere shadows of power beside their high officers of State. These were called Mayors of the Palace. Charles Martel and the Pepins of Haristel, about the end of the Merovingian line, filled this ancestral office, and were the real rulers of the country. Their descendants afterwards succeeded to the throne of Germany.

24. **At present**,—When Macaulay wrote his essay, in 1841. The power is now vested in the Crown, represented by the Government of the day, and by the Secretary of State for India.

33. **Mr. Pitt**, the younger, (1759-1806) son of the Earl of Chatham, and for 17 years Prime Minister of England. In 1784 Pitt passed in Parliament what is known as "The India Bill," establishing a Board of Control over the affairs of the East India Company. See Macaulay's essay on Pitt.

Mr. Dundas—(1749-1811)—afterwards Viscount Melville. A Scottish statesman in the British Parliament who assisted Pitt in passing his India Bill.

34 **Burke, Edmund**,—(1730-97)—a distinguished statesman, eloquent orator, and able philosophic writer. With the two other great Whig orators of the period—Fox and Sheridan—Burke won undying fame by his magnificent speeches on the impeachment of Warren Hastings.

XIII.—36. **Mussulman**,—a believer in the religion of Mahommed.

30. **Important, lucrative, and splendid**—A severe taste would cancel the third adjective: it has a weakening effect.

XIV.—1. **Brahmin**.—See sketch of Indian history.

3. **Maharajah**—*lit* "Great Rajah." Rajah is the title borne by a native prince: his territory is called a *raj*.

7. **Caste**.—See sketch of Indian history.

10.—XV.—9. **What . . . Sidney**.—Note in this clever disquisition on the Bengalee character; 1, Macaulay's love of minute details; 2, his fondness for antithesis; 3, his apt comparisons and wealth of illustration; 4, the art with which he piles up an indictment; and, 5, the climactic force with which he brings home to the reader the ingrained deceit of Nuncomar.

14-15. **He lives . . . vapour bath**.—This may be said to be literally true; for the atmosphere of the Valley of the Ganges, owing to the great heat, is at times like that arising from a steam bath. Its weakening effect upon the physical and mental framework of the Bengalee is well brought out in the illustration, ll. 23-26.

25. **Ionian**,—one of an effeminate race, once inhabiting Ionia, in Asia Minor. **Juvenal**, (A.D. 30-100), last of the Roman poets and satirists.

26 **Jew . . . Dark Ages**.—The Jews of the period (A.D. 500-1400) were, in so-called Christian countries, a down-trodden race, subjected to every outrage.

42. **Stoics . . . ideal sage**—a sect of Greek philosophers, led by Zena, who taught his followers to be indifferent to suffering and all ill.

XV.—7. **Mucius**,—a valorous Roman, remarkable for his fortitude in bearing suffering.

9. **Algernon Sidney**—(1622-83)—an English patriot who, with Lords Russell and Essex, was accused of taking part in the Rye House Plot against Charles II. He was found guilty, though on insufficient evidence, by the infamous Judge Jeffreys, and beheaded on Tower Hill. His demeanour at his execution has gained him the admiration of history.

16. **French . . . Carnatic**.—See sketch of Indian history.

XVI.—20. **Leadenhall Street**—A street in London in which were the offices of the East India Co.

XVII.—2. **Double Government**,—the dominant rule of the English and the subordinate local rule of the native princes. Clive, it will be remembered, entrusted the internal government of Bengal—the collection of the revenue, the administration of justice, the maintenance of order, &c.—to a native minister of the Nabob of the Province. It was this Hastings now determined to get rid of, and to assume for the Company the entire internal administration. The dual system of government extended from 1765, when Clive established it, to the present time, 1772, when Hastings abolished it and removed the Provincial exchequer from Moorshedabad to Calcutta, appointing European officers, under the title of Collectors, to superintend the collections, and to preside in the revenue courts. In this great administrative work Hastings was to be no less successful than in his military policy, though it led him into very questionable transactions with, and at times into rapacious measures in regard to, some of the native rulers.

15. **Patna**,—capital of the then Province of Bahar, situate on the Ganges, north-west of Calcutta. It was the scene of the first Sepoy mutiny, quelled by Sir Hector Munro, and came into prominence during the revolt of Meer Cossim. Schitab (pr. She-tawb) Roy was at this period Rajah.

40. **Munny Begum**—female guardian of the young Nabob of Bengal, who is said to have made presents to Hastings, to whom she owed her

appointment. Records concerning her presents were excluded as evidence on Hastings' trial.

XIX.—7 **Lacs of rupees**,—a lac is 100,000; a silver rupee is worth about fifty cents; a gold rupee about \$7.50.

19-25. **Govern leniently . . . rapacious**.—Note here Macaulay's scarcely concealed sarcasm and his use of antithesis.

XX.—13. **Corah and Allahabad**,—two provinces, lying in the north-west of India, sold by the English to the Nabob of Oude. The city of Allahabad is at the confluence of the Jumna and the Ganges.

13-15. **On the plea . . . concessions**.—Since the decline of the Mogul power the Mahrattas exercised no little influence in Northern Hindostan.

31 **Vizier . . . Hindostan**—Sujah Dowlah, Prince of Oude, (1754-75) assumed the title of Vizier (Prime Minister) or deputy of the Mogul.

32-35. **Electors . . . Grand Marshal**—rulers of two Prussian provinces, who had a vote in electing the Emperor of Germany; hence the title of "Electors."

XXI.—12. **Rich . . . Sanscrit**—See sketch of Indian history (p. 9). Sanscrit was the ancient language of India, and that in which the Sacred Books of the Hindoos were written.

13. **Hyphasis and Hystaspes**—the Sutlej (? the Beas) and the Jellum; the great feeders of the river Indus, which drains part of the northern Himalayas.

19. **Ghizni**—a town and fortress in Afghanistan, taken by storm in 1839 during English interference with Afghan affairs.

21. **Great mountain ridge**—the Hindoo Koosh range of the Himalayas, through the passes of which the Mohammedan conquerors of India entered Hindostan.

25. **Cabul and Candahar** the two chief cities of Afghanistan; the former is the residence of the Ameer.

27. **Rohillas**—a brave people, of Afghan origin, who, since Ahmad Shah's desolating invasion in 1761, had held possession of Rohileund, a province lying to the north-west of Oude. In the years 1773-4 the Rohillas were mercilessly crushed by the forces of the Nabob of Oude and the English troops Hastings had lent out for hire.

31. **Kumaon**—formerly a province lying close to the Himalayas, near the sources of the Ganges. The latter, rising in the Himalayas, flows south-east to the sea through the North-west provinces, Oude, Bahar, and Bengal. Its length is 1,500 miles.

32. **Aurungzebe**—(1658-1707), the sixth and most princely of the Mohammedan emperors. See sketch of Indian history (p. 10).

37. **Lahore . . . Comorin**—i.e. from the north to the south of India. Lahore, the capital of the Punjab; Cape Comorin, the most southerly point of Hindostan.

XXII.—3. **Sujah Dowlah**—See note XX, 31, (not to be confounded with Surajah Dowlah, Nabob of Bengal, of "Black Hole" infamy.)

6. **Catherine to Poland**—During the reign of the Empress Catherine II. of Russia (1762-96) there were three partitions of the once Kingdom of Poland, viz. : in 1772, in 1793, and in 1795. Austria and Germany had a share in the spoil; but the bulk of the territory was annexed by Russia.

Bonaparte . . . Spain—In 1808, Napoleon, wishing to annex Spain and Portugal to France, sent an army to enter Madrid and proclaim his brother, Joseph Bonaparte, King. This led to what is known in British history as the "Peninsular War."

24-31. **Was it . . . day?**—Note, in this fine tribute to British daring, the irony that lies beneath it.

XXIII.—5-40. **If we understand . . . other**—Note Macaulay's indignant comment on the infamous Rohilla war, and his hot arguments in reply to the view of the matter taken by the biographer of Hastings.

14-15. **German Princes . . . Americans**—Hessian and other Continental troops were used as "auxiliaries" by Britain in the Revolutionary war. The German princes who let them out for hire Macaulay terms **Hussar-mongers**—i. e., traffickers in horse-soldiery.

27. **Major Scott** (of the Bengal army) a member of the British Parliament, to whom Hastings, on his return from India, foolishly entrusted his defence against impeachment.

34. **Caput lupinum**—*lit.* "a wolfish head;" or, freely interpreted, a hungry and unscrupulous invader.

XXIV.—34-42. **Mr. Hastings . . . violated**—Here the essayist, with keen irony, again falls upon Hastings' biographer.

XXV.—39. **Lord North**—British Prime Minister (1770-82) and tool of George III. during the American Revolutionary war. He resigned office at the close of the humiliating struggle, and was succeeded by the Whigs. By the "Regulating Act" (1773) Hastings became Governor-General of India.

XXVI.—18. **Sir Philip Francis**—(1740-1818)—Public interest in this character is owing not so much to his relations with Hastings in India, nor to his active hostility against him in Parliament, but on account of the theory which connects him with the authorship of "The Letters of Junius." These famous political articles, which trenchantly attacked the Ministry of the day, appeared anonymously in the *Public Advertiser* during the years 1769-72. The secret of their authorship, though Macaulay, on what seems good evidence, traces it to Francis, has never been disclosed.

41. **Lord Chatham**—(1708-78) William Pitt, the elder, a great English statesman, and for a time one of the chief opponents of Sir Robert Walpole. He was Prime Minister during Clive's rule in India, and at the period when Wolfe was laying siege to Quebec. During his administration the war against France was conducted with great spirit, and her navy was all but annihilated. He opposed the taxation of the American Colonists, but was equally opposed to granting them their independence. While delivering a powerful speech in the House of Lords against making peace with America, he was seized with an apoplectic fit, and died a few weeks afterwards, on the 11th of May, 1778. See Macaulay's essay.

XXVII.—2. **Lord Holland**—an English statesman, descended from Henry Fox, Secretary of State to George II. He was trained for public life under his famous uncle, Charles James Fox. See Macaulay's essay.

16—XXVIII. 26. **The internal . . . Francis**.—Note here Macaulay's argument for considering Francis the author of Junius's Letters, based on similarity of literary style and on resemblance in moral character.

31. **Corneille**—(1606-84), a great French dramatist.

32. **Ben Jonson**—(1574-1637), English poet-laureate, dramatist, and friend of Shakespeare.

33. **Bunyan, John**—(1628-88), "the Bedford tinker," who wrote his renowned "Pilgrim's Progress" in gaol. See Macaulay's essay.

34. **Cervantes**—(1547-1616), Spanish novelist, and author of "Don Quixote."

37. **Horne Tooke**—(1736-1812), political writer and author of a philological treatise, entitled "The Diversions of Purley."

XXVIII.—3. **Woodfall**—(1745-1803), printer of *The Public Advertiser*, in which "Junius's Letters" appeared. He was prosecuted on account of the publication.

21. **Old Sarum**—a "pocket borough" in Wiltshire, which the Reform Bill of 1832 deprived of representation in Parliament.

31. **George Grenville**—(1712-70) English Prime Minister, 1763-65, during the John Wilkes agitation.

32. **Lord Suffolk**—(1739-1820), John Howard, 15th Earl of Suffolk, a general officer in the British army.

34. **Middlesex election**—John Wilkes, (1727-97), having been guilty of seditious language in articles written for his paper, *The North Briton*, while denouncing the ministry of the day for agreeing to the peace with America he was prosecuted and fled to France. In 1768 he returned and was elected to Parliament for Middlesex. He was thrice expelled from the House, and his expulsion gave rise to prolonged agitation and rioting. In this agitation the freedom of the press was first asserted, and the rights of constituencies against violation of the Constitution, on the part of a despotic majority in the House of Commons, were vindicated.

XXIX.—9. **Sir Elijah Impey**.—See note to page IV. 29.

12. **Inns of Court**—the four Law Societies of London—the Inner and Middle Temple, Lincoln's Inn, and Gray's Inn.

XXX.—1. **Mahrattas**.—This famous Hindoo confederacy, which had its rise in 1650 and its downfall in 1818, was composed of the several independent tribes ruled at various times by the chiefs Bonsla, Sevajee, Scindia, Holkar, and the Guicowar, of Baroda. Each reigning house had its own distinctive territory, though they all raided, not only over the Deccan, but at times over nearly the whole of Hindostan. The English contests with the Mahrattas occurred during the years 1779-81, 1803-4, and 1817-18. With the latter year the Mahratta power was completely broken. The son of the last reigning Rajah, who was a British prisoner in the neighbourhood of Cawnpore, was the infamous Nana Sahib, whose connection with the mutiny of 1857 is historic.

19-35. **Some . . . helpless**.—Note in the apt illustration in the first sentence of this passage the fate which not infrequently, though perhaps undeservedly, befalls a man whom fortune deserts; note also to what lengths Asiatic mendacity went in the endeavour to accomplish Hastings' ruin, and see what befel Nuncomar in the way of retaliation.

XXXI.—1-2. **Oates, Bedloe, Dangerfield**—three scoundrels who, at the close of the 17th century, pretended to have discovered that plots against the English Government were being hatched by Catholics.

Westminster Hall—the "Hall of Rufus," the great historic edifice built by William II., which adjoins the English Houses of Parliament.

XXXIII.—22. **Biographers excepted**—a sarcastic reference to Hastings' biographer, Mr. Gleig, who wished to relieve the Governor of responsibility for the fate of Nuncomar. Macaulay, while he condemns the act, holds Chief Justice Impey, and not Hastings, responsible.

XXXVI.—10 **Dacca**—once the capital of Bengal, 150 miles n. e. of Calcutta.

XXXVII.—5. **Lord Stafford**—a Catholic nobleman executed in 1680, on a charge of treason made by Titus Oates. See note to page 31, line 1.

XXXVIII.—17. **Tour to the Hebrides**—an account of a visit paid by Dr. Samuel Johnson to the Scottish Hebrides, published in 1773.

Jones' Persian Grammar—a work published in 1771 by the eminent Asiatic scholar, Sir William Jones, [1745-94.]

32-33. **Would . . . win**—Macbeth, Act I, Sc. V.

XXXIX.—3. **Court of Proprietors**—general meeting of the E. I. Company shareholders.

7. **Lord Sandwich**—John Montagu (1718-92), an English statesman.

XL. 12. **Berar**—one of the central provinces of India, made over to British administration by the Nizam of Hyderabad.

XLII.—5-34. **The truth . . . dominions**—England was at that time at war with America, France, Spain, and Holland. The personal ministry of George III. was as disastrous as the ministry of the first Pitt under George II. had been glorious. See Macaulay's review of Hastings' administration, page 68.

27. **Armed . . . Baltic**—a mutual compact by Russia, Sweden and Denmark to resist England's right of search on the high seas.

29. **Straits of Calpe**—Straits of Gibraltar.

XLIII.—2. Sevajee—(1627-80) founder of the Mahratta confederacy. He long waged war against the Mogul dynasty, and from the Emperor Aurungzebe extorted recognition of his kingdom.

11-15. The Bonslas . . . Holkar—See note on the Mahrattas, XXX., 1.

14. Guzerat—a province in Western Hindostan, on the Gulf of Cambay; capital, Baroda.

15. Malwa—a district to the east of Guzerat and south of Bundelcund.

16. Gooti—a fortified point on the Eastern Ghauts, to the north of Mysore.

18. Tanjore—a district in South-eastern India.

19. Double Government—See "Themes for Composition;" not to be confounded with "Double Government," XVII., 2.

23. House of Tamerlane—descendants of Timur, the Tartar, who in 1400 founded a new dynasty in the Mogul kingdom.

27. Roi faineant (*iwah fa-na-ong*)—a lazy, do-nothing King.

28. Sattara—a fortified town on the Western Ghauts, south of Bombay.

29. Peshwa—The titular head of the Mahratta confederacy at Poonah.

30. Poonah—Formerly the capital of the Western Mahrattas, to the south of Bombay.

32. Aurungabad—a city lying to the n. e. of Bombay, a favourite residence of the Emperor Aurungzebe.

Bejapoor—a town in Bombay Presidency, west of Hyderabad.

38. Louis XVI.—(1754-93) King of France, beheaded during the Revolution. His consort, Marie Antoinette, was executed nine months after him.

XLIV.—9. Cairo—On the Nile; capital of Egypt.

13. Pondicherry—a city south of Madras, and chief of the French possessions in the Carnatic. It was captured by the English in 1760, and restored to the French in 1815. See sketch of Indian history.

18. Lascars—Native seamen of India.

36. Sir Eyre Coote—an Irish General in the British army, victor at Wandewash, 1760; at Pondicherry, 1761; and at Porto Novo, 1781. In this last engagement Hyder Ali was defeated, and shortly afterwards the first Mysore war was brought to a close.

XLV.—2. Lally, Thomas—an Irishman in the French service, who commanded at Wandewash and Pondicherry.

Wandewash—a French stronghold in the Carnatic, situate between Madras and Pondicherry.

18. Pollilore, Porto Novo—two villages in the southern part of Mysore, scenes of the above-mentioned engagements.

XLVI.—11 The "Regulating Act," 1773—See Green's "Short History," chap. X., sec. II., p. 758.

XLVII.—31. Wat Tyler—the leader of a peasant insurrection in Kent in 1380, the origin of which was a taxgatherer's insult to a young girl of Dartford. Tyler was slain by the Lord Mayor of London.

15. Alguazils—(*al'ga'zeels*) a Spanish term for an inferior officer of justice.

XLVIII.—6. Sponging-houses—places to which debtors used to be taken before commitment to prison, and where bailiffs used to *sponge* upon them, or riot at their cost. See Johnson's Dictionary.

XLIX.—38. Rich, quiet, and infamous—Note the epigrammatic force of these words, and with what brevity they summarize the transaction.

L.—1. Jefferies—(sometimes, Jeffreys) a judge of unsavoury fame who conducted the "Bloody Assize" after the Monmouth Rebellion, 1685.

LI.—40. Dervise—a Mohammedan priest or monk of great austerity and professing poverty.

LII.—9. **Louis XI.**—King of France (1461-83) “of iron will and subtle though pitiless nature.”

16. **Hyder Ali**—The two strongest Mussulman potentates in India at this period were the Nizam of the Deccan and Hyder Ali, of Mysore. Both were anxious to induce the Mahrattas to join them against the English. The Nizam of Hyderabad and the Mahratta of Nagpore, Hastings, by his diplomacy, had pacified. The ruler of Mysore, incensed at the reckless conduct of the Madras Government, had, however, taken up arms, and his cavalry ravaged the country to the walls of Madras. The Mysore army was not only well disciplined but admirably handled. For a time the fate of Southern India was in doubt. Hastings, with the help of Eyre Coote, at length saved it, and peace was concluded in 1784. Hyder Ali died in 1782, though his son, Tippoo Saib, lived to direct two later wars against the English, dying in the breach at Seringapatam when that fortress was stormed under General Harris. The assault was led by General Baird; and Colonel Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, participated in it. This event occurred while a brother of the latter, the Marquis of Wellesley, was Governor-General.

36. **Coleroon**—(better known as the Canvery) a river rising in Mysore and issuing on the Coromandel coast, to the south of Pondicherry.

38. **Mount St. Thomas**—a high elevation contiguous to Madras.

LIII.—9. **Sir Hector Munro**—at one time Commander-in-Chief of the forces in India and member of the Madras Council. He had a long and honourable military career in the East. He distinguished himself in engagements with Sujah Dowlah, with the Mogul Emperor, and with Hyder Ali. The mutiny at Patna was suppressed by Munro. See note XVII., 15.

10. **Baillie, Colonel**—After desperate conflicts with Hyder's army this officer's small but gallant force was obliged to surrender, and was cut to pieces.

LIV.—30. **Benares**—a city of great wealth, on the Ganges, and capital of the province. By the Hindoos it is esteemed the chief of the sacred cities of Hindostan.

30.—LV.—12. **His first design** . . . **Cashmere**—a fine descriptive passage, enriched by the effective illustration in the closing sentence.

35-37. **Sacred apes, holy bulls**—In India both are considered sacred; ape-worship is common in the East.

LV.—11. **Golconda**—a city in the Dominions of the Nizam of Hyderabad, once famous for its diamond mines. It was twice besieged by the Emperor Aurungzebe.

12. **Cashmere**—a province close to the Himalayas, and lying between the Punjab and Kashgaria. It is noted for its rich Cashmere shawls.

14-15. **The great anarchy**—Consequent upon the fall of the Mogul Kingdom (after the murder, in 1759, of the Emperor Alamgir II.) hastened by Persian invasion and Mahratta conquest. Upon the death of the Emperor there ensued a long period of strife among the native tribes for mastery in India. Mohammedan rule, after this, was merely nominal; while that of Britain became more and more dominant.

24. **Cheyte Sing**—Rajah of Benares. Hastings' part in the Rohilla war, and his oppression and plunder of Cheyte Sing, the Queen mother and princesses of Oude, are great stains upon his reputation. The shameful story is told with considerable detail by Macaulay, and it forms the first of the charges in Hastings' impeachment. See Intro., pp. xx and xxii. For its motive, see the essay, p. 59, ll. 6-9. “The plan . . . sessions.”

LVI.—8. **Carlovingian empire.**—11. **Hugh Capet**—The Carlovingian line of Franco-German sovereigns extends from Charlemagne to Louis (or Ludwig) V. At its dissolution, the Capetian line begins with the nominal rule, in 987, of Hugh Capet, Duke of the Franks. With the accession of this dynasty begins the line of French kings proper. The authority of Hugh Capet was not good throughout France. The dukes of Brittany and Normandy, while they paid homage to Capet, were supreme in their own districts.

17. **Charles the Tenth**, in 1824, succeeded Louis XVIII. on the throne of France, but was exiled six years afterwards, when Louis Philippe ascended the throne. Charles X. pursued a retrograde policy, attacked the freedom of the press, and encouraged Ultramontane pretensions. In July, 1830, he published the ordinances which threw Paris into the revolution known as the Three Days of Barricades, the result of which was to lose him his throne.

21. **Prince Louis Bonaparte**—"Louis Napoleon" is no doubt here intended. In August, 1840, the nephew of the first Napoleon, afterwards Emperor of the French, planned a second invasion of France with the object of succeeding to the throne. While an exile in England he left its shores with a small following, and landed at Boulogne, where he unfurled the Imperial standard, but was ignominiously beaten off, and subsequently captured and imprisoned. He afterwards escaped from the place of his confinement, and on the abdication of Louis Philippe, returned to France, and by the *coup d'état* of December 2nd, 1851, became President and subsequently Emperor.

23.—LVII.—42. **Of the existing governments . . . chose**—In these paragraphs we find some justification, though not on moral grounds, for Hastings' conduct. Among the native rulers the real and the nominal sovereignty was, as Macauley remarks disjoined. So far as titles and forms went, the Mogul ruled; but the "heir of Tamerlane" was now a British captive, and his lieutenants were "independent princes." As Hastings viewed the situation, the native sovereigns might "play at royalty," but the English were the masters of India.

LVI.—40-41. **De facto**—*Lat.* really; 'from the fact.' **De jure**—by right; 'from the law.'

LIX.—36-40. **He was now . . . breach**—*Cf.* p. 14, ll. 10-20.

LXI.—31. **Major Popham**—a British officer who distinguished himself in the first Mahratta war. He captured Lahar and Pateeta, and stormed the rock-fortress of Gwalior, considered the key of Hindostan.

LXII.—10. **Asaph-ul-Dowlah**—Nabob of Oude. See Sheridan's great speech on the "Spoliation of the Begums," in connection with the impeachment of Hastings. Oude now spoiled was finally annexed under Lord Dalhousie's administration in 1856. The axiom upon which that high-minded statesman acted was "the greatest good to the greatest number." Princely debauchees, his theory was, only cumbered the ground; and, in annexing Oude, he did so on the plea that "no false sentiment should preserve dynasties which had forfeited our sympathies by generations of misrule, or prolong those that had no natural successor."

LXIII.—4 **Lucknow**—At the period the capital of Oude, and, in 1857, famous as the scene of the relief, by Sir H. Havelock, of its beleaguered English defenders during the Sepoy rebellion. It is situate on the Goomti, a tributary of the Ganges.

8. **Chunar** (*Ku'*)—a fortified town on the Ganges, about 20 miles s. w. of Benares.

32. **The Begums**—the wife and mother of Sujah Dowlah, Nabob of Oude. In 1775, when this ruler died, the two Begums claimed that his hoarded treasure, amounting to two or three millions sterling, had been made over to them as their private property, and could not be used as revenues of the State for the payment of tribute to the East India Co. or for any other purpose. The new ruler, Asaph-ul-Dowlah, by dint of coaxing, had got his mother and grandmother to dole out some of the treasure. It was the remainder Hastings set his eyes upon, and with the Nabob's connivance, endeavoured to wring from the princesses, with what success will be seen from the text.

30. **Fyzabad**—(modern spelling, *Faizabad*)—a town in the Province of Oude, 60 miles east of Lucknow.

LXVIII.—20-38. **Not only . . . Hastings**—At this period the United States the "thirteen Colonies" had won independence; Ireland was putting forward a claim for her independence, and for a time (from 1782 to 1800) had been given a local parliament and by the treaties of

Paris and Versailles England had surrendered to France and Spain possessions she had formerly wrested from these powers. In India, thanks to Warren Hastings, Britain had the while been wholly a gainer. See Green's "Short History," Chap. x, Sec. 2, (Page 761).

LXIX.—4-5. **Lewis XVI.** . . . **Emperor Joseph**—France and Germany were at the time two of the most populous states in Europe.

LXX.—5-6. **Marlborough** . . . **deputies**—John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough (1650-1722) while conducting the war in Spain and in Flanders, during the reign of Queen Anne (1702-14), had under him, besides his English troops, those of Holland and Germany. In his campaigns he was constantly thwarted by the German princes and the Dutch deputies. His military genius, nevertheless, enabled him to win great victories; though his political foes in England prevented him from long enjoying the honours of them.

6-8. **Wellington** . . . **Mr. Percival**—The Duke of Wellington, during the Peninsular war, was embarrassed at times by the want of ready support on the part of the Spanish Juntas, or War Committee, and of the Ministry which represented the Portugul Regency, while the Queen was insane. After the defeat at Corunna of Sir John Moore, Mr. Percival, the English Prime Minister, (1809-12) was also lukewarm in prosecuting the war against the French in Spain and Portugal; and he threw on Wellington the responsibility of remaining further with the English troops in the Peninsula. Wellington readily accepted the responsibility and added to the battle-flag of England the honours of Talavera, Badajos, and Salamanca.

LXXI.—24. **Milton, John**—(1608-74), one of England's chief poets and a great prose writer; author of *Paradise Lost and Regained*, &c.

Adam Smith—(1723-90), political economist, and author of *The Wealth of Nations*, published in 1776, a work which may be said to have given birth to the doctrine of "Free Trade."

24-27. **To substitute** . . . **Arabian expositions**—In Hastings' time the practical wisdom of the West, with the fruit of discovery in every department of thought, had not been introduced into India. Learning was still represented by the puerilities of the Brahminical schools, or by the hazy notions of the physical world of the ancient Greeks, with Arabian interpretations thereof, which had got into India through its Mohammedan conquerors.

29. **Virtuous ruler**—Lord Wm. Bentinck, Governor-General (1823-35), and an enlightened ruler. He abolished *sati*, or widow-burning, and suppressed thuggism, or assassination by strangling. Macaulay penned the following inscription for Bentinck's monument at Calcutta:—"He abolished cruel rites; he effaced humiliating distinctions; he gave liberty to the expression of public opinion; his constant study was to elevate the intellectual and moral character of the natives committed to his charge."

39. **Asiatic Society**—an association of learned men who, at Calcutta, in 1783, founded a society for the study of Oriental literature.

42. **Sir Wm. Jones**—(1746-94), a famous Orientalist, "who by pointing out the connection of Sanskrit and Latin and Greek laid the foundation of philology."

LXXII.—3. **Pundits**—(sometimes, Pandits,) learned Brahmins, expounders of the law.

6-9. **What** . . . **Christians**—The Portuguese during the whole of the 16th century enjoyed a monopoly of the East Indian trade. The contemporary narratives of their conquests in India are full of horror. At Goa, which from 1510 has been the capital of Portuguese India, they established the Inquisition, and treated the Hindoos with the greatest cruelty, as enemies of Portugal and of Christ.

LXXIII.—3. **Hurricane** . . . **cavalry**—Note the beauty of the metaphor. The Mahratta cavalry were noted for the swiftness of their movements and the unrestrained force of their attacks.

23-25. **Nurses** . . . **Sahib Warren Hostein**—a fine touch this of Macaulay, and a happy illustration of the "superstitious admiration" of the native Hindoos for Warren Hastings. The whole passage is full of beauty.

Sahib—Lord; an East Indian courtesy title for an English gentleman.

LXXIV.—19. **Zemindar**—a magistrate, landholder, and revenue collector.

22. **Carlton House**—a luxuriantly-furnished palace in London, given to the Prince of Wales, afterwards George IV.

Palais Royal—at the period, a royal residence in Paris, furnished with princely splendour.

LXXV.—9. "**His elegant Marian**" the divorced Baroness Imhoff, whom Hastings married.

11. **Sir Charles Grandison, Miss Byron**—characters in Richardson's novel of *Sir Charles Grandison*, published in 1754. Sir Walter Scott speaks of the hero of this work of fiction as "the faultless monster that the world ne'er saw."

27. **Otium divos rogat**—(*Everyone asks the gods for repose*); the opening line of *Od. XVI.*, Bk. II., by the Latin poet, Horace, (B.C. 65).

28. **Lord Teignmouth**—(Sir John Shore), a civil servant in India who rose to be Governor-General (1793-8.) His knowledge of India was in his time unsurpassed, and during his administration the "Permanent Land Settlement" was effected.

30-33. **Who, like . . . need**—Observe how nicely turned is this compliment, yet what censure it conveys.

38.—**Cheltenham**—at the period, a fashionable English watering-place, in Gloucestershire.

LXXVI.—25. **Grattan, Henry**—(1746-1820), an Irish orator and statesman, noted for his eloquent speeches on Irish independence.

32-35. **Surrounded . . . Trafalgar**—another illustration of Macaulay's wonderful power of utilizing his vast knowledge for the purposes of illustration, by contrast or comparison. At Waterloo and Trafalgar, modern warfare being so different from ancient warfare, Hannibal and Themistocles would have been incapable of successfully directing an engagement.

34. **Hannibal**—(B.C. 247-183), the great Carthaginian general during the second Punic war.

Themistocles—(B.C. 514-449), Athenian general and statesman. By a stratagem of Themistocles the Persian fleet of Xerxes was destroyed by the Greeks at Salamis.

LXXVII.—6. **Wedderburn**—(1733-1805), a Scottish judge and statesman.

31. **Asiaticus**—of Asia; **Bengalensis**—of Bengal.

LXXVIII.—3. **Lord Mansfield**—(1705-93), an eminent Scottish judge, known as the "silver-tongued Murray."

4. **Lord Lansdowne**—(2nd Earl of Shelburne), a General in the British army, and statesman of the time of George III. In 1782, on the decease of the Marquis of Rockingham, under whom he filled the office of Secretary for Foreign Affairs, he became Prime Minister. He died in 1805. The 5th Marquis of Lansdowne is now Governor-General of Canada.

18. **Thurlow**—(1732-1806), an English judge and statesman. Was Lord Chancellor from 1783 to 1792.

36. **Mr. Dundas**—See note to page 12, l. 33.

LXXIX.—16. **The Coalition**—the union, in 1783, of the Whigs under Fox and the Tories under Lord North, to oppose the ministry of Lord Shelburne. See Green's "Short History," Chap. X, Sec. 3, Page 764.

20. **Brooks's**—a club in London, the favourite social resort of the leading Whig politicians.

31. **Virgil's third eclogue**—a pastoral poem of the Roman poet, Virgil, who died B.C. 19.

38. **Depending questions**—a metaphorical allusion to Mrs. Hastings' priceless Indian ear-rings, which, with "her necklace gleaming with future votes," were understood to be within the gift of the lady to those who would espouse her husband's cause in Parliament.

LXXX.—13-16. **Mistook . . . ostentation**—a severe comment on Francis's life-long hostility to Hastings. Macaulay in this passage would seem to characterise Francis's moral indignation at Hastings' conduct in India as a piece of self-righteousness.

33. **Fox, Charles James**—(1749-1806), one of the greatest of English statesmen, and a bitter opponent of Pitt and the war with France. Burke called him "the greatest debater the world ever saw."

35-37. **Burke . . . French republic**—In 1790 Burke published his famous *Reflections on the Revolution in France*, an eloquent attack on the principles of the Revolutionists rather than on its events. The French Revolution had its origin in 1789, in a revolt against the oppressive government of the aristocracy. The first Republic lasted from 1793 to 1804.

LXXXI.—5. **Las Casas, Bartolomeo de**—(1474—1576), Apostle of the Indies and Catholic Bishop of Chiapa. His humane interest in the Indians of South America led him to cross the Atlantic many times to plead their cause before King Ferdinand and the Spanish Court.

6. **Clarkson, Thomas**—(1760—1846), a Quaker philanthropist associated with Wilberforce in the crusade against the iniquity of the slave-trade. In 1808 he published his views on the subject,

10-11. **A people . . . in common**—Recent philological research shows that this statement is not correct. Both in blood and in language the people of Europe are akin to the people of India. This was not known, however, in Burke's day, nor in Macaulay's. See sketch of Indian history, (page ix.)

14.—LXXXII. 18. **His knowledge . . . London**—"This passage," says Mr. Trevelyan, the essayist's biographer, "unsurpassed as it is in force of language and splendid fidelity of detail by anything that Macaulay ever wrote or uttered, was inspired by sincere and entire sympathy with that great statesman of whose humanity and breadth of view it is the merited, and not inadequate, panegyric."

40. **Imaum**—a Mohammedan priest.

Mecca—a city of Arabia, the birthplace of Mahommed, and chief seat of the religion of Moslem.

LXXXII.—8. **Beaconsfield**—a town in Buckinghamshire, where Burke had his country residence, and where he lies buried. In St. James's Street was his town residence.

15. **Lord George Gordon**—(1750—93), a mischievous maniac, the leader of a mob who, in 1780, on the pretext of seeking to repeal laws imposing penalties on Catholics, pillaged about London and inflamed the populace. Though acquitted on his trial for high treason, he afterwards fell into the hands of the authorities, and in 1793 died in prison. ■

17. **Dr. Dodd**—(1729—77), author of "*Beauties of Shakespeare*"; a fashionable preacher during the reign of Geo. II. and III., and at one time chaplain to the King. In 1777, he was executed for forging a bond on his patron, the Earl of Chesterfield.

36. **Stamp Act**—a measure passed in the English Parliament, in 1765, requiring the American Colonists to put stamps on legal documents, the sale of which would return a revenue to Britain. The obnoxious Act, though it was repealed in the following year, led to the War of Independence. See Green's "Short History," chap. X., sect. II., page 746.

LXXXIII.—3. **The Regency**—In 1788, the King for a time became mentally deranged, and the Prince of Wales advanced his right to be Regent. The King, however, recovered, and held the sceptre till 1820.

French Revolution—See note LXXX., 1. 37.

10 **Bastile**—Fortress in Paris latterly used as a prison. When the Revolution broke out, the populace stormed and destroyed it, as a hated symbol of tyranny. Its capture, says Mr. Green, was taken for the sign of a new era of constitutional freedom for France and for Europe.

10. **Marie Antoinette**—See note to Louis XVI., XLIII., 1. 38.

LXXXV.—27. **Lord Daylesford**—a title derived from Hastings' ancestral estates in Worcestershire.

LXXXVII.—34. **Grenville, George**—head of the English Administration from 1763 to 1765.

40. **William Wilberforce**—(1759-1833), an English member of Parliament, noted for his philanthropy in the suppression of the slave-trade.

LXXXVIII.—40. **Sheridan, Richard Brinsley**—(1751-1816), a brilliant orator, statesman, and dramatist. At his death Lord Byron wrote the following well-known Monody :—

“ Long shall we seek his likeness—long in vain,
And turn to all of him which may remain,
Sighing that Nature formed but one such man,
And broke the die—in moulding Sheridan !”

See speech on the Spoliation of the Begums.

LXXXIX.—14. **Windham, Wm.**—(1750-1810, an eloquent statesman, and member of the Coalition Ministry of 1783. Macaulay elsewhere speaks of him as “ the high-souled Windham.”

XC.—32. XCI.—7. **There have been . . . right to left.**—We here come to the opening sentences of that fascinating word-picture so frequently quoted from Macaulay, the scene of the trial of Warren Hastings. How graphic is the picture need hardly be pointed out. The stately movement of the sentences; the animation of the style, with its balanced structure, abrupt transitions, and pointed figures of speech; the splendour of the imagery, the flashing of antithesis, and the crispness and vigour of the epigrams—so characteristic of the Essay as a whole—come specially out in the description of the scene in Westminster Hall. Note in the last four words of the present passage how the Essayist descends to what would seem triviality of detail, except that he wishes to make clear the allusion to the strange written characters of the Semitic languages, which are traced *from right to left*.

XCI.—8. **Plantagenets**—a line of English monarchs from Henry II. (1154) to Richard II. (1399). The name is derived from the common broom of Anjou (the *p'anta genista*), a sprig of which Geoffrey, the father of Henry II., used to wear in his helmet. During the rule of the Plantagenets (See the “Good Parliament” [1360-77] under Richard III.) the Commons wrested from the Crown many practical reforms, and received many concessions in the interest of the people. The right of Parliament to enquire into public abuses, and to impeach public counsellors, were among the privileges granted at this period.

12. **Great . . . Rufus**—See note to Westminster Hall, XXXI., 2.

15. **Bacon, Sir Francis**—(1561-1626), statesman, author, philosopher, and judge. In 1621, while Lord High Chancellor, he was impeached for taking bribes and for other corrupt practices; and was fined and imprisoned. His sentence was afterwards remitted. Burke thus speaks of him: “Who is there that upon hearing the name of Lord Bacon does not instantly recognize everything of genius the most profound, everything of literature the most extensive, everything of discovery the most penetrating, everything of observation of human life the most distinguished and refined?”

16. **Somers, John, Lord** (1651-1716), a great Whig leader during the reigns of William and Anne; an active promoter of the Revolution, friend of Addison, and Lord Chancellor. In 1701 he was impeached for alleged illegal practices, but acquitted, owing to a disagreement between the Commons and the Lords as to the mode of procedure against him.

Stafford, Thomas Wentworth, Earl of, (1593-1641), impeached by Pym, in the Long Parliament, for having plotted with Laud for subverting the Constitution and making Charles I. an absolute monarch. He was condemned to death by a "bill of attainder." The eloquence of his defence is a matter of history."

17-20. **Victorious Party** . . . **fame**—the Parliamentary forces opposed to Charles and Stafford, and which ultimately brought the King to trial and to his death. At his trial, in 1649, Charles bore himself with great dignity.

42. **Queen** . . . **Brunswick**—Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, wife of George III. **House of Brunswick**, or Hanover,—the line of sovereigns from George I. to Victoria.

XCII.—4. Siddons, Sarah—(1755-1831), a great tragic actress, then at the height of her fame.

" 6. **Historian** . . . **Empire**—Edward Gibbon (1739-94), author of *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, a work which gave a new impetus to historical studies. The history is grandly conceived and is rich in detail, though its style is heavily-laden and its tone contemptuous. It appeared during the year 1776-88.

7. **Cicero**—(B.C. 106-43), great Roman orator and statesman. Verres, praetor of Sicily, was impeached (B.C. 70) for acts of cruelty, and Cicero conducted the prosecution. His orations on the occasion finely manifest his genius.

9-10. **Tacitus** . . . **Africa**—Tacitus (A.D. 55-117?), a celebrated Roman historian, whose chief works extant are *Histories*, *Annals*, *Germany*, and *Life of Agricola*. Tacitus was one of the prosecutors of Marius Priscus, Roman Governor of Africa about the end of the first century.

11. **Greatest Painter**—Sir Joshua Reynolds (1723-92); **Greatest Scholar**—Samuel Parr, LL.D., (1747-1825), a renowned classical scholar and editor. See De Quincey's essay.

20. **Charms of "her"**—Mrs. Fitzherbert, who was privately married, in 1785, to the Prince of Wales, afterwards George IV.

22. **Saint Cecelia**—understood to refer to Mrs. Sheridan, whose portrait Sir Joshua Reynolds had painted in the character of the patroness of Music.

26. **Mrs (Elizabeth) Montagu**—(1720-1800), founder of the "Blue-Stocking Club," an author of some note, and great friend of the eminent literary men of the time. See Doran's "A Lady of Last Century," and Boswell's "Life of Johnson."

27-30. **Ladies** . . . **Devonshire**—In the election canvasses of the time, it was not uncommon for ladies to solicit for their friends the votes of electors. The Duchess of Devonshire is said to have gained for Fox the vote of a butcher by allowing him to kiss her.

32. **XCIII.—5. The culprit** . . . **judges**—Note in this brief paragraph the fine description of Hastings' dignified appearance at the Bar of the Peers; also note the animation of the narrator's style.

XCIII.—3. Mens æqua in arduis—a mind equal, or serene, amid difficulties.

5. **Pro-consul**—a Roman title for the Governor of a Province.

15-16 **But neither** . . . **accusers**—Note here the mode of transition, from the description of the accused to that of the accusers. It is easy yet effective, and has the art of exciting the reader by its quality of suspense.

32. **Great age** . . . **eloquence**—From Pericles (B.C. 450) to Demosthenes (B.C. 322).

33. **English Demosthenes**—Charles James Fox. Demosthenes (B.C. 38-322) was the greatest of Athenian orators.

English Hyperides—Richard Brinsley Sheridan. Hyperides, a contemporary of Demosthenes, and an eloquent Greek orator. His writings have not come down to us.

34-36. **Ignorant . . . hearers**—Burke by this time had lost the ear of the House, partly owing to his political attitude, and partly to the philosophic character of his speeches, which wearied the members.

42. **Youngest manager**—Charles, Earl Grey (1764-1845), an English statesman of chivalrous honour, who rendered great political services in his day. At the period of Hastings' trial he was but 24 years of age; and he held the office of Prime Minister when the Reform Bill of 1832 was passed. Macaulay's panegyric is well-deserved.

XCIV.—25. XCV.—15. **With an exuberance . . . all!**—This is one of the most effective passages in the Essay. The Anaphora and the climax in the peroration will not escape the reader. Nor will the fine touch of the essayist be missed, where he alludes to the "resounding arches of Irish oak," as if the building itself sympathized, as has been remarked, with the great Irish orator.

XCVI.—18-20. **Lac**—one hundred thousand; **crore**—ten millions; **aumil**—court official; **sunnud**—a warrant; **perwannah**—a judge's order; **jaghire**—a tract of land; **nuzzar**—a present or bribe, made to a superior.

35. **The King's illness**—See note on the Regency, LXXXIII., 3.

39. **States-General**—the Representative Assembly of France, which Lewis XVI. summoned to meet during the Revolution, though it had not met since the time of Richelieu. It was afterwards called the National Assembly. "No sooner did it meet at Versailles, says Mr. Green, "than the fabric of despotism and privilege began to crumble."

XCVII.—7. **Oracles of jurisprudence**—By Metonymy, for the great law officers of the Crown, on whom the House depended for advice in legal matters.

XCIX.—12. **Woolsack**—the seat of the Lord Chancellor in the House of Lords.

28-29. **Scattered . . . death**—Friendships had been estranged by the political differences of the time.

29. **The great chiefs**—Burke, Sheridan, Fox, Windham, Grey.

CI.—12-20. **He saw . . . Pantheon**—Observe the effective use of Anaphora, and the keen irony which characterizes this passage from Burke. Note, also, how it depreciates the value of the Hastings' testimonials.

36. **Logan, John**—(1784-88), divine, poet, and miscellaneous writer. In 1783 Logan published a tragedy, entitled "Runnimeed," founded on the story of Magna Charta; and in the following year he brought out a defence of Warren Hastings. He is a type of the political parson of the time. See Adams' "Dictionary of English Literature."

39. **Simpkin's Letters**—an account, in verse, of the Hastings' Trial, one of the many squibs which the proceedings evoked. Published in 1790.

42. **Anthony (Tony) Pasquin**—the name of an old Roman cobbler, who was wont to make cutting remarks about his neighbours. The name was assumed by Williams for low political objects.

CM.—16. **Addington, Mr. Henry**—(1757-1844). Premier (1801-4) in a ministry of the second rank of political eminence in England. Green speaks of him as "a man as dull and bigoted as George (III) himself." He owed his elevation to office by opposing Catholic emancipation.

41. **Allipore**—a suburb of Calcutta.

CIV.—1. **Covent Garden**—the chief market in London for flowers, fruit, and vegetables.

4. **Thibet**—An extensive plateau north of the Himalayas.

8. **Bootan** (sometimes Bhutan)—an independent province in the n. e. of India, between Assam and the Himalayas.

15. **Trissotin**—a gallant who affects poetry in Moliere's play of *Femmes Savantes*.

36. **Dionysius**—(B. C. 430-367) an Athenian general and *dilletante* in literature.

37. **Frederic (the Great)**—(1712-86), King of Prussia (1740-86) and a successful general, who, however, dabbled in letters.

42. **Hayley, Wm.**—(1745-1820), poet and dramatist. He wrote a *Life of Cowper*, published in 1803.

Seward, Wm. Henry—(1746-99), a now forgotten miscellaneous writer and collector of anecdotes.

CV.—33. **Sheldonian Theatre**—the great hall in Oxford where university degrees are conferred.

42. **Guildhall**—a civic hall in London where distinguished people are entertained by the city fathers.

CVI.—18. CVII.—5. **With all his faults . . . obloquy**—a touching passage, one of the few instances of pathos in Macaulay's writings.

21. **Great abbey**—Westminster Abbey, where Hastings' accusers, Pitt & Fox, lie buried. Note the beautiful figure, "that temple of silence and reconciliation."

24. **Great Hall**—Westminster Hall.

41. **Richelieu**—(1585-1642), a great French statesman and cardinal. The period of his power and influence was from 1624 till his death.

42. **Cosmo de Medici**—(D. 1574), a statesman of the Florentine Republic, and liberal patron of learning and the fine arts.

CRITICAL NOTICES OF MACAULAY'S STYLE.

"The exact style, the antitheses of ideas, the harmonious construction, the artfully balanced paragraphs, the vigorous summaries, the regular sequence of thoughts, the frequent comparisons, the fine arrangement of the whole—not an idea or phrase of his writings in which the talent and the desire to explain does not shine forth."—TAINÉ.

"Behind the external show and glittering vesture of his thoughts—beneath all his pomp of diction, aptness of illustration, splendour of imagery, and epigrammatic point and glare—a careful eye can easily discern the movement of a powerful and cultivated intellect, as it successively appears in the well-trained logician, the discriminating critic, the comprehensive thinker, the practical and far-sighted statesman, and the student of universal literature."—E. P. WHIPPLE.

"Macaulay's essays are remarkable for their brilliant rhetorical power, their splendid tone of coloring, and their affluence of illustration with a wide range of reading, and the most docile and retentive memory. He pours over his theme all the treasures of a richly-stored mind, and sheds light upon it from all quarters. He excels in the delineation of historical characters, and in the art of carrying his reader into a distant period and reproducing the past with the distinctness of the present."—GEORGE S. HILLARD.

"I learned of Macaulay the duty of trying to be clear. And I learned that in order to be clear there were two main rules to be followed. I learned from Macaulay that if I wished to be understood by others, or indeed by myself, I must avoid, not always, long sentences—for long sentences may often be perfectly clear—but involved, complicated, parenthetical sentences. I learned that I must avoid sentences crowded with relatives and participles; sentences in which things are not so much directly stated as implied in some dark and puzzling fashion. I learned, also, never to be afraid of using the same word or name over and over again, if by that means anything could be added to clearness or force. Macaulay never goes on, like some writers, talking about "the former" and "the latter," "he, she, it, they," through clause after clause, while his reader has to look back to see which of several persons it is that is so darkly referred to. No doubt a pronoun, like any other word, may often be repeated

with advantage, if it is perfectly clear who is meant by the word. And with Macaulay's pronouns it is always perfectly clear who is meant by them. . . . Macaulay never uses a word which, whatever might be its origin, had not really taken root in the language. He has no vulgarisms, no new-fangled or affected expressions. No man was ever so clear from the vice of thrusting in foreign words into an English sentence. In short, Macaulay never allows himself for a moment to be careless, vulgar, or slipshod."—EDWARD A. FREEMAN, LL.D.

"Macaulay possessed talents of unusual versatility. Besides attaining high eminence as a critic, poet, essayist, and historian, he made his mark as a jurist, a legislator, and an orator. His memory was extraordinarily retentive. To it we owe his fondness for details and the opulence of his illustrations. To his power of realizing the past we owe his skill in historical description and the delineation of character. His style is remarkable for its incomparable lucidity; its lively arrays of concrete particulars; its variety and purity of expression; its sudden, sharp surprises; its constant play of antithesis and frequent use of climax; its rapid movement and sparkling, dazzling animation. But while his style is perspicuous, it is sometimes not precise; and his fondness for balance and antithesis occasionally betrays him into extravagance and exaggeration. His vocabulary is copious; his sentences are generally short, abrupt, and light, but the rhythm is fluent, and the cadences full and harmonious. The splendour of his imagery has justly been the theme of unstinted praise; it is due no less to the vastness and variety of his knowledge than to the brilliancy of his talents. Still-life he seldom describes; but he revels in the 'rush and roar' of the world of action. He is never more in his element than when he paints in vivid colours some gorgeous pageant, some angry mob. He was essentially a controversialist. When he makes a statement, he feels bound to explain or to prove it; and he is at his best when combating some fancied objections or demolishing the arguments of some real antagonist. Pathos his style forbade; wit and humour in their highest forms he does not possess; but in broad and scathing ridicule he has no superior. For clearness, purity, and strength, Macaulay's style is a model. But, while we imitate its excellences, we should avoid his excesses."—JOHN SEATH, B.A., *Inspector of High Schools for Ontario*.

"Macaulay's composition is as far from being abstruse as printed matter can well be. One can trace in his writings a constant effort to make himself intelligible to the meanest capacity. He loves to dazzle and to argue, but above everything he is anxious to be understood. His ideal evidently is to turn a subject over on every side, to place it in all lights, and to address himself to every variety of prejudice and preoccupation in his audience. . . . In the quality of strength, Macaulay offers a

great and obvious contrast to De Quincey—a contrast between brilliant animation and stately pomp. His movement is more rapid and less dignified. He does not slowly evolve his periods, ‘as under some genial instinct of incubation;’ he never remits his efforts to dazzle; and in his most swelling cadences he always seems to be perorating against an imaginary antagonist. . . . We have (elsewhere) commented upon the varied expressions, the abrupt transitions, the constant play of antithesis, the perspicuous method, and the lively array of concrete particulars. We have also noticed implicitly the exhilarating pace both of the language and of the thoughts, the rapidity of the rhythm—as determined by shortness of phrase, clause, and sentence—and the quick succession of the ideas. . . . Animation is our author’s distinguishing quality; but often from the grandeur of his subject, and of the objects that he brings into comparison with it from all countries and from all times, his style takes a loftier tone. Sometimes, however, in his contemptuous and derisive moods, he uses a studied meanness of expression that reminds us of the coarse familiarity of Swift. . . . He had a great command over the proper vocabulary of strength: he is very vehement in his epithets. . . . A rhetorician of so decided a turn as Macaulay could not fail to use the rhetorician’s greatest art—climax. In every paragraph that rises above the ordinary level of feeling we are conscious of being led on to a crowning demonstration. . . . He is lavish in the use of antithesis. The contrasts are really more numerous than might be thought at first glance; the bare framework is so overlaid and disguised by the extraordinary fulness of expression that many of them escape notice. When we look narrowly, we see that there is a constant play of antithesis. Not only is word set off against word, clause against clause, and sentence against sentence. There are contrasts on a more extensive scale; one group of sentences answers to another, and paragraphs are balanced against paragraphs. His pages are illuminated not only by little sparks of antithesis, but by broad flashes. . . . A favourite and characteristic way of getting up an antithesis is, before narrating an event, to recount all the circumstances that concurred to make it different from what it ultimately proved to be. . . . Another favourite device is in the course of his narrative to speculate what might have happened had the circumstances been different. . . . The same vein of reflection is continually cropping up in all his narratives. . . . In the delineation of characters he finds great scope for his favourite effect. In these pictures the scintillations of antithesis are almost incessant. . . . The great objection to the frequent use of antithesis is the danger of its betraying a writer into exaggerations, into deepening the shadow and raising the light. It is not denied that Macaulay has a tendency to make slight sacrifices of truth to antithesis. His antithesis often takes an epigrammatic point. Macaulay delights in epigrams: there is a dash of epigram in his unexpected transitions.”—*From Minto’s “English Prose Literature.”*

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